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THE

EAST-INDIA GAZETTEER;

CONTAINING

Particular Descriptions

OF THE

EMPIRES, KINGDOMS, PRINCIPALITIES, PROVINCES, CITIES, TOWNS, DISTRICTS, FORTRESSES, HARBOURS, RIVERS, LAKES, &c.

OF

HINDOSTAN,

AND THE ADJACENT COUNTRIES,

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES,

AND THE

EASTERN ARCHIPELAGO;

TOGETHER WITH

SKETCHES OF THE MANNERS, CUSTOMS, INSTITUTIONS, AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, REVENUES, POPULATION, CASTES, RELIGION, HISTORY, &c.

OF THEIR

VARIOUS INHABITANTS.

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By WALTER HAMILTON.

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place of great religious resort." When that author composed the Ayeen Acberry, the surrounding country was named Soreth, although at present more generally known by that of Cattywar, and is celebrated in the sacred books of the Hindoos as containing these inestimable blessings; 1st. the river Goomty; 2d. beautiful women; 3d. good horses; 4th. Somnauth; 5th. Dwaraca. The modern town stands at the junction of three rivers, the Hurna, the Kapula, and the Sereswati. It is mentioned by Marco Polo about A.D. 1295, and by Sidi Ali in 1554.

Somnauth (Soma natha, the lord of the moon) is one of the twelve images of Siva, which are said to have descended from heaven to earth, and the great fame and riches of its temple attracted the cupidity, while it stimulated the bigotry of Sultan Mahmood of Ghizni. According to Mahomedan authors the holy image was destroyed; but this fact is denied by the Hindoos, who assert, that the god retired into the ocean. The temple, although on this occasion despoiled of its enormous treasures, soon recovered wealth sufficient to make it an object of attack to Mahomedan potentates. Sultan Mahmood Begra, who obtained possession of the Gujerat throne in 877 of the Hijera, marched against Somnauth, razed the temple to the ground, and built a mosque on the spot where it stood. Since that period the territory of Soreth has remained under a Mahomedan government, but the persevering piety of the Hindoos has overcome the religious phrenzy of their rulers. The mosque has gone to ruins, and Ahila Bhye, the widow of a prince of the Holcar family, has erected a new temple on the exact site of that which had been demolished. A symbol of Siva has been placed therein, deemed peculiarly propitious to those that desire offspring, and Somnauth, although it has lost its splendour, retains its reputation, and is visited by pilgrims from every quarter, who pay a trifling duty to the Mussulman nabob, for permission to perform their devotions at this favorite shrine.

Not only the spot on which Somnauth stands, but also its vicinity, is celebrated in the tales of Hindoo mythology. On the adjacent plains, the renowned conflict of the Jadoos was fought, five thousand years ago, wherein sixty millions of combatants were engaged, and all slain except about a dozen. One mile from the temple, at a place called Bhalka, the Hindoo pilgrim is shewn a solitary peepul tree, on the banks of the river Sereswati, which he is assured grows on the exact spot where the deity Krishna received the mortal wound from an arrow that terminated his incarnation. In 1816, through the interposition of the Bombay presidency with the Junaghur state, arrangements were effected tending to secure a greater freedom of pilgrimage to Somnauth. It had long been an object of lively interest with the Guicowar state, and anxiously desired by all classes of Hindoos, to relieve this sacred and celebrated shrine from the insults of the Mahomedans, who not only preposterously obstructed their worship, but entered the recesses of their temples without the smallest respect for their prejudices.—(*Malcolm, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

PYCHE.—A town in the province of Malabar, fourteen miles N.E. from Tellicherry; lat. 11° 56′ N., lon. 75° 39′ E.

Q.

QUEDAH (*Keddah*).—A principality in the peninsula of Malacca, situated on the west coast, between the fifth and eighth degrees of north latitude, and immediately opposite to Prince of Wales' island. Seen from the latter, the Quedah coast presents a considerable plain, covered with close wood, through which winds a river navigable for small craft to the base of the high mountains, from behind which, as viewed from George Town, the sun rises.

This territory extends along the coast about 150 miles, commencing from the river Traang, which is its northern boundary, and is from twenty to thirty-five miles in breadth, but the cultivated land no where exceeds twenty miles from the shore. From Traang to Purlis, the sea-coast is sheltered by many islands for a distance of twenty-four leagues, low, and covered with forest. The water is remarkably shallow, ships being obliged to anchor at a great distance from the shore. Along this tract eleven rivers empty themselves into the sea, but navigable for boats only. The mouth of the Quedah river is in lat. 6° 6′ N. At spring tides there is sufficient water to admit a vessel of 300 tons, over the mud flat at its mouth; but there are stakes nearly across, leaving only a small opening for junks and prows. Bunder Pakan Qualla, the first town in ascending, contains about 1,000 houses on both sides of the river, which further up diverges into many channels.

Prior to the Siamese invasion, Quedah was populous and divided into 128 mukims or parishes, for they must all contain at least one mosque, and forty-four persons versed in its ceremonials. The name of its metropolis formerly was Lindong Ambulan, which being translated signifies "shaded from the moon"; afterwards it received the name of Quedah (pronounced Keddah) which means, an enclosure for taking elephants. By the Siamese it is named Chèrei. Until the disasters which it experienced in 1821, Quedah exported large quantities of rice to Penang; also cattle, fish, poultry, and fruit; latterly these have been reduced to one-tenth. Formerly a junk came annually from China and purchased biche-de-mar, bird's-nests, shark-fins, tin, rice, rattans, dammer, tortoise-shell, deer skins, sinews, bullock and buffaloe hides, and various other commodities.

In the Quedah forests are black and spotted elephants, rhinoceroses, tigers, leopards, tiger-cats, wild cattle, an animal like the elk deer, guanos, porcupines, and many varieties of the ape and monkey tribes, with and without tails; the most remarkable bird is the Argus pheasant. Durable timber for house and ship building, bamboos, Malay fruits, such as the mangosteen, rambosteen, &c. abound, and the climate permits the cultivation of every tropical fruit, flower, and vegetable. Tin and gold are found in sufficient quantities to reward research. The first is brought from the interior by water to Quedah, where it is cast into slabs of from fifty to eighty pounds, and also into smaller pieces of fanciful shapes, such as cocks, hens, dogs, tea-kettles, &c. of various weights. The best Malay is spoke and written in this petty state, the inhabitants being particularly attentive to the purity of their language, and careful in excluding foreign and exotic words.

Quedah is inhabited by Malays of the Mahomedan religion, and governed by hereditary chiefs, who assume the title of sultan; but wherever the government of Siam is in vigour they pay homage to its king (the Poa of Dwarawuddi), by sending annually one flower of gold and another of silver. The first settlers are said to have come from Malacca, and the town of Quedah in 1614 was destroyed by the Portuguese. The grandfather of the reigning monarch in 1823, was Sultan Mahomed Jewa Shah, who was succeeded by his son Sultan Abdulla Shah, about A.D. 1778. This last-mentioned prince dying in 1798, was succeeded by his brother, Sultan Fleea ud Deen Shah, who ceded the province of Wellesley, while Sir George Leith was governor of Penang. Some time afterwards he transferred the throne to Tuanko Pangeran, his nephew, and eldest son to Sultan Abdalla abovementioned, who assumed the reins in 1804.

In 1786 an agreement was entered into with the king of Quedah for the cession of Prince of Wales' Island, and in 1792 a regular treaty of peace and amity, to continue as long as the

sun and moon give light, was concluded, by which the East India Company agreed to pay 6,000 dollars annually, which was afterwards raised to 10,000 dollars, in consideration of the territory ceded on the main land. In 1818 the Quedah sultan appealed for advice and assistance, being compelled by the Siamese to attack the raja of Perak, against his inclination and interests, and also to furnish enormous contributions of money and stores; the demands of Siam having always been arbitrary, and limited only by its power to inforce them. In November 1821 Quedah was invaded by a large fleet of Siamese prows from the river Traang, where the armament had been equipped, and subdued with little difficulty, the king seeking refuge at Penang.

The British territory on the Quedah coast, named Wellesley province, in 1824 contained 14,000 souls, and the produce of rice from the lands under cultivation was estimated at 48,000 bags. In 1826, the king of Quedah, who had been expelled from his dominions by the Siamese, still resided at Penang, where he was allowed 500 dollars monthly, but prohibited from levying troops or making hostile engagements; in fact, by the subsequent treaty with the Siamese, his cause appears to have been quite abandoned. Twelve thousand of his subjects had sought refuge in the British territories on the sea-coast, opposite to Prince of Wales' Island. In 1827 his family and relations, to the number of seventy persons, through the interference of Captain Burney, were released and forwarded to Penang.—(*Anderson, Public MS. Documents, Dalrymple, Capt. Glass, Johnson, Elmore, &c.*)

QUILON *(in Malabar)*.—See COULAN.

QUINHONE *(or Chinchicu bay)*.—An excellent harbour in Cochin China, were vessels are sheltered from every wind. The entrance is narrow, and the want of a sufficient depth of water obliges vessels of great burthen to delay entering until high water.

R.

RABNABAD ISLE *(Ravana abad)*.—A low muddy island in the province of Bengal, district of Backergunge, formed by the sediment deposited by the Rabnabad river, one of the branches of the Ganges, and separated from the main land by a very narrow strait. At neap-tides it is scarcely above water, and at spring-tides it is nearly submerged. In length it may be estimated at fifteen miles, by five the average breadth.

RACHOUTY.—A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, twenty-seven miles south from Cuddapah; lat. 14° 9′ N., lon. 78° 52′ E.

RAEENGURH.—A fort in Northern Hindostan, situated on the banks of the Pabar river, which originally belonged to Bussaher; lat. 31° 12′ N., lon. 77° 46′ E.; fifty three miles N.N.E. from Nahan.

RAEEPOOR.—A small town in the province of Delhi, thirty-five miles E. from Sirhind; lat. 30° 31′ N., lon. 77° E.

RAGOOGHUR.—A town and small square fort of masonry in the province of Malwa, fifteen miles distant from Tilloor. In 1820 it belonged to the raja of Dewass, and contained about 4,000 inhabitants.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RAGHOOGHUR.—A town within Sindia's dominions, in the province of Malwa, thirty-six miles N.W. from Seronge; lat. 24° 27′ N., lon. 77° 14′ E. It is the head of the large district of Kycheewara, which, including the town, yields a revenue of two lacks of rupees. The petty chief to whom it belonged had been leading a predatory and refractory life, but in 1820, through the mediation of the British government, the town and fort of Raghooghur, with an es-

tate of 55,000 rupees, were restored to him.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RAHDUNPOOR.—A petty state in the north-western quarter of the Gujerat province, to which it is difficult to assign any intelligible limits. The Theraudri (a dependency) is bounded on the north by Neyer and Sachore; east by the Desawal district; south by the Chunswa pergunnah; and west by the Runn.

The principal chieftains within this space are the nabob of Rahdunpoor, the rana of Wow, the row of Choteelwara, and the waghelas of Theraud and Deodhur. The Coolies of Nuggur, Jampoor, and Bhanbeer, have some towns interspersed among these principalities. This territory was reduced to a state of complete desolation by the Joudpoor plundering troops, the great famine of 1869 fusly (A.D. 1813), and the never-ending ravages of the Khosas and Coolies. The tract lying on the Runn, from Sooeegaum to Gusra, ninety miles in length by about thirty in breadth, is possessed and peopled by two branches of the Chohan Rajpoots, the Nadolas, and Sonegiras, the leading features of whose characters are pride, falsehood, debauchery, and plundering habits; at the same time brave, liberal, and without the usual fastidiousness of the Indian character. If left to themselves they would exist in a state of continual warfare, their feuds, marriages, robberies, and debaucheries, seldom leaving any man without a demand for blood, or a similar claim on him from others, or more frequently both.

Their territory is level, arid, and uncultivated, covered with low jungle, and their resources even in prosperous times of little importance. Including a portion of Palhanpoor, it fills up the space between the Runn on the west, and the mountains on the east, and extends nearly as far as Sachore, beyond which commence the Joudpoor dominions, whose raja also shares, along with the Ameers of Sinde, the habitable portions of the desert, between the river Looni (the Ban of Arrowsmith) and the Indus. In 1820 the total revenue of Rahdunpoor was estimated at 160,000 rupees, but its realization was so very uncertain a contingency, that it could contribute nothing towards the federal system of defence against the Khosas, Coolies, and other plunderers. At the above date the pergunnah of Rahdunpoor contained forty inhabited towns and villages: the pergunnahs of Summee and Moujpoor seventy-five inhabited and twelve desolate, besides which Rahdunpoor levied collections on Warye, Choorwagur, Tehrwara, Deodhur, Morewara, and other tributary towns. The towns of most importance are Rahdunpoor and Summee, and the territory is, on the whole, more fertile than that of the adjacent petty states. In 1821, in consequence of the increase of revenue (52,202 rupees) resulting to Rahdunpoor from the protective arrangements of the British government, the nabob's tribute was fixed at 17,000 rupees annually, for five years; but addition of revenue was not so much the object, as to induce the native chiefs on the north-west frontier of Gujerat to co-operate in its defence.—(*Elphinstone, Miles, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

RAHDUNPOOR.—The capital of the preceding principality, situated about 125 miles in a N.W. direction from Baroda; lat. 23° 40′ N., lon. 71° 31′ E. It stands in a wide, open plain, and is surrounded by an ancient brick wall, with towers at regular distances, but the whole is in a state of great decay. In 1820 it contained about 4,000 houses, and owing to its geographical position was a sort of commercial entrepôt for the trade of Marwar and Cutch. Its own staple commodities are ghee, wheat, and hides, the produce of its territory. No manufactures of any importance are carried on, except one of very coarse cotton cloth, for the Coolies, the inhabitants being mostly engaged in pastoral and agricultural

pursuits. The river Banass passes within three or four miles of Rahdunpoor; but except during the rains is never full. Rahdunpoor is mentioned by Sidi Ali in A.D. 1554.

Jewan Khan Muid Babi by his valour and family popularity possessed himself of the soubahdary of Gujerat, and although he never received regular investiture from Delhi, continued to exercise a sovereign authority, and made the annual collections for a considerable period. In 1774 the Babi family lost Ahmedabad to the Maharattas, after a gallant defence, and subsequently many of their other possessions; but notwithstanding these privations, the late Ghazi ud Deen Khan supported the dignity of the Babi family, and his capital was the refuge of the most respectable and noble Mahomedan families, during the Maharatta ascendancy and wane of the crescent. In 1813 the British government interposed its good offices to tranquillize this petty state, and maintain the legitimate succession. On this occasion the Rahdunpoor nabob recognized the supremacy of the Guicowar, and consented to make an annual acknowledgment thereof, by presenting a horse and cloths, through the British resident at Baroda. By this arrangement the influence and control of the Guicowar, in concert with the British authorities, was extended to the borders of the great desert separating Sinde from the province of Gujerat.

No tribute was ever exacted from the nabob of Rahdunpoor by any of the predominating Maharatta governments; but being on terms of friendship with the Guicowar state, he undertook to guard the two passes from Sinde and Ajmeer. To support his authority, which, on account of the rude tribes that compose the mass of his subjects, would otherwise be precarious, he retains mercenaries from Sinde, to which his country is contiguous, and through them controls the wild habits of the Coolies. These last cannot be employed as soldiers, for no discipline can teach them subordination, but on an emergency their services are procurable, at no greater expense than that of their daily subsistence while so employed. In 1815 the nabob's establishment consisted of three palanquins and two elephants, the small remnants of ancient splendour.—(*Public MS. Documents, Carnac, Macmurdo, &c.*)

Raheia.—A small town in the province of Agra, fourteen miles S.E. from Jaloun; lat. 26° 2′ N., lon. 79° 26′ E.

Rahoon *(or Rahn)*.—A town in the province of Lahore, a few miles distant from the Sutuleje, which here, in the month of April, has the appearance of a canal running in two channels; the first fordable, and in breadth about 100 yards; the second is 350 yards across, the water deep, but not rapid. When the floods are at the highest, the stream is said to expand to the great breadth of one mile and a half. From Rahoon baftaes and piece-goods are carried to the fair at Hurdwar. It stands in lat. 31° 1′ N., lon. 76° E., about twenty miles N.N.E. from Luddeanna.—(*11th Register, Raper, &c.*)

Rahowry.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty miles north from Ahmednuggur; lat. 19° 22′ N., lon. 74° 53′ E.

Raichoor *(Rachur)*.—A district in the province of Bejapoor, situated at the south-western extremity, within the fork formed by the channels of the Krishna and Toombuddra rivers. It properly belongs to the division of Hindostan, entitled India South of the Krishna. The chief towns are Raichoor, Paugtoor, and Culloor.

Raichoor.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, the capital of the preceding district, forty-two miles north from Adoni; lat. 16° 9′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E. This is an irregularly built town, being an old fort with some new works, commanded by a hill, and some rising grounds near

it. In point of rank it was the second town in the jaghire of Bazalet Jung, son to Nizam ul Mulk, the soubahdar of the Deccan, and brother to the late Nizam ud Dowlah. Adoni was his capital, and continued after his death to be that of his son Darah Jah, until Tippoo took it from him, and nearly destroyed it. On this event he removed to Raichoor, which had the advantage of greater distance from so rapacious and formidable a neighbour. Here, however, he suffered nearly as much from his uncle, the Nizam, who imposed so high a tribute, that it reduced him nearly to the condition of a mere renter.—(*MSS., &c.*)

RAIDROOG *(Raya Durga).*—A small district in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, situated between the fourteenth and fifteenth degrees of north latitude. The chief river is the Vadavati, which in different parts of its course is also named the Hajni and Hoggry; the principal towns are Raidroog, Calliandroog, and Mulkamaroo. The family of Raidroog is descended from the dalawai, or hereditary prime minister of the Bijanagur empire, who on its dissolution seized on Pennaconda and Condrippy. Under Aurengzebe he obtained or seized on additional villages. In 1776 the district was subdued by Hyder, and in 1788 the poligar was captured by Tippoo, and sent to Seringapatam, where he died a violent death. His son and successor, Vincatuppy Naik, was killed in 1791, while attempting to escape from Bangalore. At the peace of 1792 Raidroog was transferred to the Nizam, and in 1790 Gopaul Naik, a descendant by the female line, attempting to raise disturbances, was sent prisoner to Hyderabad. In 1800, in consequence of arrangements with the Nizam, this division was ceded to the British government, from which the poligar's family still receive a pension.—(*Munro, &c.*)

RAIDROOG.—A town in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, the capital of the preceding subdivision of the province; lat. 14° 10′ N., lon. 76° 56′ E.; 29 miles south from Bellary. This place stands about forty miles north of Chitteldroog. The intervening country is fertile, with very few hills. In 1790 the Maharattas obtained possession of Raidroog, having bribed Tippoo's governor with sixty thousand rupees. Travelling distance from Hyderabad, 232 miles. —(*Moor, Rennell, &c.*)

RAIREE.—See RYEGHUR.

RAISSEEN.—A large district in the province of Malwa, of which it occupies the south-western quarter, where it is separated from the Deccan by the Nerbudda river, and the hills extending along its northern bank. It is one of the original Mogul subdivisions of Malwa, and is mentioned by Abul Fazel as containing thirty-two mahals; but until 1818 it could scarcely be said to have been subordinate to any regular government, having become a favourite haunt of the Pindaries, from whence, until extirpated in 1817, they infested the surrounding countries.

RAISSEEN.—A town and hill fort in the province of Malwa, the former capital of the preceding division, but now much decayed; lat. 23° 31 N., lon. 77° 52′ E.; twenty-three miles N.E. from Bopaul. The country from hence to the Nerbudda is remarkably wild and mountainous, but the hills are not so precipitous as those to the south.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

RAJA CHOHANS.—A jungly country in the province of Gundwana, situated between Sohagepoor and Singhrowla. This is an extremely rugged and mountainous tract, very little cultivated, and inhabited by some of the wildest tribes in India. The whole tract is a succession of deep gullies, ravines, chasms, and defiles. The inhabitants call themselves Chohans, and their raja was formerly tributary to the Maharattas, but not remarkable for the punctuality of his payments. The land produces a little rice, Indian corn, and a few smaller grains pecu-

liar to hilly countries. South of Soneput the country becomes more open, but the villages continue very poor, not consisting generally of more than four or five miserable huts; but there is a great abundance of game. Among the animals of a more ferocious nature may be enumerated the royal tiger, leopards, tiger-cats, and large black bears. The principal town is Soneput, the usual residence of the Chohan rajas, who appear to have lived in complete independence before the Maharattas, in 1790, pushed their conquests into these woods and wilds.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

RAJAGOOLEE.—A considerable village in the province of Bejapoor, situated in a beautiful valley on the skirt of a forest, near the verge of the Western Ghauts, about three miles S.W from Diddee. It is surrounded by a good stone wall.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RAJAGRIHA *(or the king's house)*. —This and the following article may be considered as relating to the same place, but are kept separate, as the temple stands at some distance from the town.

This is a very celebrated place of Hindoo worship, and for many ages has been one of the principal seats of their superstition, and probably also the seat of empire. The small town of Rajagriha stands on the north side of a ridge of mountains, to which it has communicated its name, about seven miles north-west from Giriyak, supposed to have been the palace of Jarasandha, an acknowledged monarch of India, and several of whose monuments are still shewn in the vicinity of this place. The surrounding country to a great extent is covered with an infinite variety of ruins.

Although the present town of Rajagriha stands on the massy rampart of an old fortress, the natives have no tradition that it ever belonged to Jarasandha; on the contrary, they usually ascribe the works to Shere Shah, the Afghan; but there being two distinct fortifications, one evidently more ancient than the other, it is probable both formerly existed.

Rajagriha stands high, but commencing about a mile east of it, and extending for four miles in that direction, the country is very low. Through this has been constructed a grand mound, almost universally attributed to Jarasandha, the asur or infidel. In a valley formed by the ridges of the Rajagriha hills is a valley supposed to have been the field of battle where Jarasandha fell by the hands of Bheem. The Saraswati rises in this valley, and as it passes the gap between Bipul and Baibhar receives the water of numerous springs, hot and cold, and with the orthodox Hindoos these are objects of worship. Every thirty-first moon, which in the Hindoo calendar is intercalary, about 50,000 persons assemble at these springs, which are the property of a class of Brahmins named Rajagriha, imported many years ago from Dravira, Maharashtra, Carnata, the Concan and Telinga, but who as they now exist are a set of ignorant, clamorous, dirty beggars.

The Jains also claim Rajagriha, and assert that it was the residence of Mahasrenik, Upasrenik, and Srenik of the Jain religion, who possessed a country forty-eight coss in circumference, a mode of expression by which the Jains appear to designate a powerful zemindar or petty prince. The Jains every year resort hither in great numbers, and have built temples on the five hills by which the valley is surrounded. In 1811 there was a Hindoo hermit here who had seated himself in the open gallery of a thatched hut, where he sat all day in the posture in which Buddha is represented, without motion or speech, but well besmeared with cow dung.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

RAJAGHIRI.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, situated at the base of the Rajagriha hills, near the north-west extremity of the range, about sixteen miles south from the city of Bahar. The hills in this

neighbourhood abound with springs of water, both hot and cold, for the reception of which numerous small stone reservoirs have been built, and dedicated, one with another, to almost every divinity of the Hindoo pantheon, with sometimes a small temple on the margin of the fountain. A thermometer immersed in the hottest of these springs in the month of January rose to 102°. On the crest of the mountain, immediately above Rajaghiri, is a temple of great sanctity, dedicated to Parswanatha, which is still resorted to by Jain pilgrims from different parts of India, and in the vicinity of the town below are the remains of an extensive fort, once of considerable strength; a monastery belonging to the sect of Nanok (the Seiks), and a Mahomedan shrine, chiefly remarkable for its sequestered situation.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RAJAKERA.—A town in the province of Agra, thirty-one miles S.E. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 47 N., lon. 78° 6′ E.

RAJAMAHAL.—This town and adjacent territory belong to the ancient province of Bengal, although now annexed to the division of Boglipoor, which ranks as a Bahar zillah, and under which head further particulars will be found. In old documents it is also named Acbernuggur from its capital, and in the revenue records Caukjole, as being the chief military division. It is situated on the south-western bank of the Ganges, and was formerly the seat of an important military cantonment, on the confines of Bengal, towards Bahar, commanding some of the mountain passes into both countries, particularly the famous pass of Telliagurry, the possession of which was deemed of much consequence in the time of the hostile independence of the two soubahs.

The city of Rajamahal stands on the S.W. side of the Ganges, about seventy miles N.N.W. from Moorshedabad; lat. 25° 2′ N., lon. 87° 43′ E. During the reign of the emperor Acber, A.D. 1591, Raja Maun Singh, on his return from the conquest of the Afghans of Orissa, fixed on the town of Agamahal for the capital of Bengal, changing the name to Rajamahal; but by the Mahomedans it is occasionally distinguished by the appellation of Acbernuggur. In 1608 the seat of government was removed from hence to Dacca by Islam Khan, but in 1639 was brought back by Sultan Shujah, the unfortunate brother of Aurengzebe, during whose viceroyalty it attained great importance, being the established metropolis of the Bengal and Bahar provinces, for which it was admirably situated. This prince for his temporary residence erected a splendid building, called the sunggedalan or stone hall, which is now in a miserable state of ruin. A great deal of this edifice has been pulled down for its materials, especially the stones, which have been employed to construct the palaces of the Moorshedabad nabobs, and much has also been removed to make room for modern hovels.

Since the era above-mentioned Rajamahal has necessarily suffered great diminution, which has probably been accellerated by the removal of the British courts of justice to Boglipoor. It is, however, still a large place, but the rubbish and dispersion of the houses render its appearance very dismal. It still contains twelve market-places scattered over an immense extent, and the resident population may be computed at 30,000, besides travellers by land and water, who are always numerous, and the supplying of whom with necessaries forms the principal support of the town. Within its limits is the tomb of Meerun, the son of Jaffier Ali, the predecessor and successor of Cossim Ali. Meerun (by whose orders Seraje ud Dowlah was assassinated) was killed by lightning, and buried here in a tomb of small size, but neatly built, and having many flowers planted around. — (*F. Buchanan, Stewart, Lord Valentia, &c.*)

RAJAMUNDRY *(Raj Mahendri).*—The third district of the Northern Circars, proceeding from the north, and situated between the 16th and 17th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the district of Vizagapatam; on the south by that of Masulipatam; on the east it has the sea, and on the west the dominions of his highness the Nizam.

The limits of this district have undergone several fluctuations, and are at present but ill defined. Part of the original circar lies to the south, but the greater proportion to the north of the Godavery, which separates it from Ellore. This river divides itself into two great branches, thirty-five miles from the sea, with which it forms the island of Nagarum, a triangular space comprehending 500 square miles, but of great value in proportion to its extent. From the Poliveram zemindary, on the west, the great range of hills limits the circar, and the small river Settieveram describes its boundary towards Cicacole. In 1784 the whole circar of Rajamundry included 1,700 square miles of accessible territory. The intervening space between the small rivers Yellerie and Settieveram is subdivided by water-courses to answer the purposes of irrigation in the two principal zemindaries of Peddapoor and Pettipoor. The island of Nagarum is enclosed by the two greater branches of the Godavery, and intersected by five lesser ones, which render it very productive, it being the grand receptacle of all the slimy mould carried down by the greatest river of the Deccan. The forests of Rajamundry, from the commencement of the hills along the banks of the Godavery, to Paloonshah on the frontiers of Cummumait, produce abundance of teak trees, this being the only country on the east side of the bay of Bengal that produces this durable species of timber.

The cultivation of sugar is carried on to a considerable extent in the Peddapore and Pettipoor zemindaries, along the banks of the Elyseram river, which, though small, has a constant flow of water the whole year, sufficiently large not only to water the sugar plantations during the driest seasons, but also a great variety of other productions, such as paddy, ginger, turmeric, yams, and chilies. This stream of water, during the sultry weather, renders the lands adjoining more fertile than almost any other in the Deccan, and peculiarly fitted for the growth of the sugar-cane. A considerable quantity of sugar is also raised in the delta of the Godavery, and the cultivation might be increased to any amount. They do not attempt to raise a crop from the same spot oftener than every third or fourth year, but during the intermediate time plants of the leguminous tribes are cultivated. Here, on an average, six pounds of juice from good canes yield one pound of sugar. The refuse is given to cattle, or carried away by the labourers, there being no distilling of rum. The cultivation of cotton is general in Rajamundry, but from the nature of the soil and surface, more especially in the remoter parts, the produce is not great in amount or superior in quality.

The principal towns in this zillah are Rajamundry, Ingeram, Coringa, Bundermalanca, Peddapoor, and Pettipoor; but there is little export trade carried on except from Coringa. Some of the villages in the eastern quarter have rather a wilder character than the generality of the hamlets in the plains of the Northern Circars, consisting of small mud huts of a circular form, with only one aperture overgrown with creepers, their enclosures strongly fenced, with narrow winding paths between them. The territory was ceded to the French in 1753, by Salabut Jung, the reigning soubahdar of the Deccan, and acquired to the British by Lord Clive in 1765. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 6,74,550 star pagodas; and in 1822, according to returns made by the collectors to the Madras government, the inhabitants were estimated at 7,38,308

persons.—(*J. Grant, Public MS. Documents, Roxburgh, Hodgson, Fullarton, &c.*)

RAJAMUNDRY. — A town in the Northern Circars, the capital of the preceding district, situated on the east side of the Godavery, about fifty miles from its mouth; lat. 16° 59′ N., lon. 81° 53′ E. A ridge of mountains approaches the Godavery at Rajamundry, stretching from the north-west, and the town itself is built on an elevated bank adjoining the river. It is of great length, but narrow, and the principal bazar of two stories, with terrace roofs, a rare circumstance in this part of India. Appearances here indicate a prevailing Mussulman population, for there are several old mosques, and only one pagoda. The old fort is still in existence. It is a quadrangular work, with high walls and an indifferent ditch, and garrisoned by a party of invalids. The zillah court is established here, but the collector resides at Coconada.

During the dry season the Godavery at Rajamundry is a clear blue stream, flowing over an extensive bed of sand, and broken by frequent shoals and islands; but when full, in the months of June and July, it is a mile broad, and makes a grand appearance. Its bed is then deep and very little raised above the level of the sea, in consequence of which, during a remarkable rising of the sea at Coringa in 1784, ships were drifted as high as Rajamundry. Not far below the town the Godavery separates into several branches, forming several fertile deltas and large islands. The banks on both sides are from twenty to thirty feet high, and consist chiefly of hardened clay marle, large portions of which are carried away and deposited elsewhere, causing much contention among the land-owners.

Rajas of Rajamundry are mentioned by Ferishta as independent princes when the Deccan was invaded by Allah ud Deen, A.D. 1295, and it was subjected by the Bhamenee sovereigns of the Deccan in A.D. 1471. Travelling distance from Hyderabad 237 miles; from Madras 365; and from Calcutta 665 miles.—(*Fullarton, Orme, Heyne, Rennell, &c.*)

RAJANAGUR *(Rajanagara)*. — A small town in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Puddah or grand trunk of the Ganges, twenty-three miles S. by W. from Dacca; lat. 23° 22′ N., lon. 93° 14′ E.

RAJANAGUR. — A well-built and good-looking village in the Northern Circars, district of Rajamundry, eleven miles N.E. from the town of Rajamundry. There is a temple here dedicated to Mahadeva, and another to Krishna, and on one of their terraces are figures of asceties in a sitting posture, as large as life, but ill sculptured.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RAJAPOOR *(or Dundah Rajapoor)*. —A town in the province of Aurungabad, named also Jezira Jessore, belonging to the Siddee family, formerly the hereditary admirals of the Mogul empire, in which naval function they were succeeded by the British government without any regular investiture. Lat. 18° 8′ N., lon. 73°6′ E., forty-six miles S. by E. from Bombay.

RAJAPULPETTA.—A town in the province of Hyderabad, sixty miles south from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 16° 27′ N., lon. 78° 37′ E.

RAJDEER.—A town in the province of Candeish. The fortifications of this place are in a great measure formed by nature, being merely a high precipitous mountain, possessing no works except such as have been constructed for a narrow traversing footpath, cut through the rock with great labour and secured by gates. The interior is plentifully supplied with water, and when besieged, in 1818, was found provided with one year's provisions; but notwithstanding these precautions, on the opening of the mortar batteries the garrison evacuated the place, and it was taken possession of without the death of a single man.—(*Blacker, &c.*)

RAJGHUR.—A large and strongly-fortified town in the province of Agra, principality of Macherry, situated within a recess of the hills; lat. 27° 14′ N.

RAJGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, the capital of the modern division of Omutwara, and residence of the Rawut Mohun Singh; lat. 23° 59′ N., lon. 76° 49′ E. Prior to 1820 it had suffered greatly from the ravages of the Pindaries and Grassias, and the rawut then paid tribute to Sindia. In 1819 the gross revenue amounted to about 50,000 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RAJGHUR. — A small town in Northern Hindostan, eleven miles west of the Chour station; lat. 30° 49′N., lon. 77°28′ E., 7,115 feet above the level of the sea.

RAJNUGUR.—A town, the capital of a small district in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles N.W. from Punnah; lat. 24° 54′ N., lon. 79°52′ E.

RAJODE.—A town in the province of Malwa, forty-six miles W. by S. from Oojein; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 75° 9′ E.

RAJOO.—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated on the right bank of the Mahanuddy, at its junction with the Pyri, about twenty-seven miles to the south of Ryepoor. It is still celebrated for the temple of Rajoo Lochun, and for an annual festival in honour of that deity. It contains images of Ramachundra, Garura, Hunimaun, and Jagath Pal, the raja who is said to have constructed the temple. Besides the above there are various other shrines, sanctuaries, and mythological sculptures. On a small rocky island at the junction of the Pyri and Mahanuddy is a temple dedicated to Mahadeva, under the epithet of Kuleswara.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

RAJOORA.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, fifty-three miles N.E. from Diu head; lat. 21° 2′ N., lon. 71° 40′ E.

RAJPEPLA.—A division of Gujerat, comprehending several rugged tracts, interspersed between that province and Candeish, and extending from the Nerbudda to the Tuptee, forming the eastern boundary of such parts of the Broach and Surat districts as lie betwixt these rivers. To the east it is bounded by the petty state of Akrany; on the west by the Broach pergunnah; its northern boundary is the Nerbudda, and its southern Candeish, the Mundavie territory, and the pergunnah of Wusravie. Its extreme length has been estimated at 100 miles; its breadth varies from forty-five to sixty miles.

The pergunnahs of Nandode, Wasseeter, Bhalode, and Gowalee, situated on the banks of the Nerbudda, being subject to its inundation, are fertile and productive, and formerly the Rajpepla territory supported 500 towns and villages; but such had been the distracted state of the country from 1803, that in 1815 only fifteen villages remained, and the vast wastes of Rajpepla became an asylum for every species of marauders and a depôt for their booty. The cornelian mines are found in the vicinity of Ruttunpoor (ruttun, or ratna, signifying a gem), and are principally worked by Bheels, who are the operative miners. The climate is unhealthy, and particularly destructive to strangers, and the water, according to native accounts, is detestable. The country is thinly inhabited by a wild race of mountaineers, mostly of the Bheel and Rajpoot castes; and so late as 1821 the towns and villages were mostly deserted, the regular inhabitants having migrated to the British territories.

The state of Rajpepla is tributary to the Guicowar, and in 1815 was nominally governed by a minor raja, ten years of age, named Pertaub Singh.

In 1821 the land assessment was fixed at..... Rs. 2,29,278
The expenses of the principality were 90,060

Carried forward ... 1,39,218

Brought forward ...	Rs.	1,39,218
Deduct tribute to the Guicowar	Rs.	75,000
Provision for the widow of Ramsingh ...		8,400
		83,400
Leaving ...	Rs.	55,818

for the liquidation of the government debts, exceeding thirty lacks of rupees. The revenue, however, was considered susceptible of improvement, and Mr. Willoughby had effected an amicable settlement with the Bheels; but the annals of Rajpepla, for many years, present a most distressing history of the anarchy and rapine that had devastated this petty state, and almost annihilated its population.—(*Public MS. Documents, Willoughby, &c.*)

RAJPEPLA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, thirty-four miles east from Broach, the former capital of the preceding division; lat. 21° 46′ N., lon. 73° 45′ E. The village of Pepla stands on the top of a lofty mountain, and is now called Toona, or Old Pepla, to distinguish it from the new village of that name. It is situated in a country almost inaccessible to any but Bheels, the road leading over high hills covered with jungle, it having been formerly a place of refuge. Vestiges of the town are still occupied by Bheels, the modern capital being Nandode, and the country designated in the Mogul records as Nadowt, or Nandode.—(*Willoughby, &c.*)

RAJPOOR (*Rajapura*).—A town in the province of Bejapoor, district of Concan, ninety-six miles N.N.W. from Goa; lat. 16° 46′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E.

RAJPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwa, eighteen miles from Kooksee; lat. 22° 15′ N., lon. 74° 24′ E. In 1820 this was the head-quarters of Muzzaffer, an Arabian jemadar, and head manager to Jeswunt Singh, the raja of Ally and Mohun. It stands on the high road from Malwa to Gujerat, and is surrounded by a thick jungle, cultivated in some spots by the Bheelala tribe.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RAJPOOTANA (*Rajputrana*).—See AJMEER PROVINCE.

RAJSHAHY.—A district in the province of Bengal, of which it occupies the central parts, and situated principally between the twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Dinagepoor and Mymunsingh; on the south by Birboom and Kishnagur; to the east it has Dacca Jelalpoor and Mymunsingh; and on the west Bogilpoor and Birboom. This was formerly the most extensive and unwieldy zemindary in Bengal, and in 1784 comprehended, according to Major Rennell's computation, 12,999 square miles, yielding a revenue of twenty-four lacks of rupees.

Rajshahy is intersected in its whole length by the Ganges, or lesser branches, with many navigable rivers and fertilizing streams; and so watery is its nature, that from the beginning of July to the end of November it is nearly submerged. In times of remote Hindoo antiquity the particular portion thus subject to prolonged inundation was named the region of Varendra. The northern portion of the district, as it is now constituted, presents neither elevation, forest, road, or watercourse, by the assumption of which a definite boundary might be fixed. In the vicinity of Hurrial the face of the country is exceedingly wild and woody, and otherwise fitted for the harbour of dacoits. For the protection of the jeels, or shallow lakes, a swift guard-boat, of sixteen oars is retained, commanded by a jemadar, who is especially recommended to superintend the Chillam Jeel, the largest expanse of water of this description in Bengal. In 1820 government relinquished the repairs of a considerable portion of the embankments in Rajshahy, which always failed when the rivers were highest, and subjected the vicinity to sudden and mischievous inundations. On the other hand, when the rains were scanty, they were cut by the natives,

who, indeed, were always adverse to their being maintained.

In A.D. 1725 this zemindary was conferred on Ram Jevon, a Brahmin, and founder of the present family; but since that period it has suffered much dissection, and little space comparatively now remains to his descendants. From the low surface of the country it is ill adapted for the erection of solid edifices, and accordingly few are seen, and those mostly Hindoo temples, or the more transitory dwellings of Europeans. There is no fort within the district, except one belonging to the nabob of Moorshedabad, at Godagaree, built in former times as a place of refuge for the nabob's family, but now in a most ruinous condition. The chief towns are Nattore, Bauleah, and Hurrial, besides which there are many populous and commercial villages. Until the separation, in modern times, of several important pergunnahs, Rajeshahy produced four-fifths of all the silk, raw or manufactured, used in or exported from Hindostan. In 1814 the jumma, or land-assessment to the revenue, was 14,69,814. Prior to the separation of the pergunnahs above alluded to, the number of inhabitants was computed at 1,997,763; but in 1801 they were estimated in round numbers at 1,500,000, in the proportion of two Hindoos to one Mahomedan.—(*Wynch, C. Græme, jun., A. Gardner, J. Grant, &c.*)

Ralding.—A principal peak of a cluster in Northern Hindostan, situated above Murang, on the left bank of the Sutuleje; lat. 31° 29′ N., lon. 78° 22′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea, 21,411 feet.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Rama Cape.—A promontory in the province of Bejapoor, on the west coast of India, within the Goa territory; lat. 25° 5′ N., lon. 74° 2′ E.

Rama Serai.—A fertile valley in Northern Hindostan, division of Roween, situated between the Tonse and Jumna, and traversed by the Rama stream, from which it derives its name; lat. 30° 50′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E.—(*Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

Ramapatam.—A pleasant village a mile from the sea-shore, in the Carnatic province, and district of Nellore, about five miles N. from the town of Nellore, with a bungalow for the accommodation of travellers.

Ramdroog (*Rama Durga*).—A town in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, forty-three miles S.E. from Bellary; lat. 14° 44′ N., lon. 77° 31′ E.

Ramgaon (*Rama grama*).—A village in Northern Hindostan, district of Kumaon, situated on the declivity of a high and steep mountain, near the great road from Almora to Rohilcund, by the Bamouree pass, and about seventeen miles south from the town of Almora. An excellent bridge, constructed of logs, on the principle of the hill Sanga, but eight feet wide, and with a light parapet railing on each side, has recently been thrown across the mountain torrent which flows at the bottom of the deep dell below Ramgaon, and near it a small house has been erected by government, with a commissariat depôt annexed, for the accommodation of travellers.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Ramgerry (*Rama giri*).—A small town in Mysore, forty-eight miles N.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 43′ N., lon. 77° 25′ E. Lac is produced in several of the neighbouring hills, upon the tree called jala, but cattle is the principal object of the people round this place. In all diseases of the ox kind the remedy is actual cautery, fancifully applied in different places. Although the killing of an animal of the cow kind is considered worse than murder by the Hindoos, there is no creature whose sufferings exceed those of the labouring cattle in Hindostan.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Ramghaut (*Ramaghat*).—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the west bank of the Ganges, which in the dry season is here fordable;

lat. 28° 10′ N., lon. 78° 12′ E., seventeen miles S.S.E. from Anopshehr.

Ramghaut.—One of the passes through the western ghaut mountains, descending from the elevated province of Bejapoor to the Portuguese territories subordinate to Goa. The greatest height of this pass above the sea is said to be about 2,200 feet. The pass was formerly very difficult and rugged, with frequent steep and sharp turnings, so as to be almost impracticable for loaded cattle; but in 1820 a detachment of Madras pioneers were employed in widening it, and forming a carriage road like that down the Bhore Ghaut. From the small temple of Siva at the summit, called Rama Lingam pagoda, to the foot of the ghaut is a distance of about three miles and a half. The descent is by regular gradations, through an uninterrupted tract of forest, without any of the bold mural precipices or magnificent chasms which distinguish the scenery of the Bhore Ghaut. The teak tree is not found in this part of the ghauts, poon being the prevailing timber. There is a belt of fine open forest, free from underwood, extending eastward for a space of ten miles from the top of the pass, and the first tract of cultivated land, going west, is at the frontier Portuguese village of Barry, seven miles and a half from the base.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Ramgheer *(Ramaghiri)*.— A district in the province of Hyderabad, situated towards the north-eastern extremity, and extending across the Godavery, which intersects it; but only the portion situated to the south of that river is subject to the Nizam's authority, the rest belonging to the wild Hindoo province of Gundwana. The town of Ramgheer stands in lat. 18° 27′ N., lon. 79° 28′ E., 100 miles N.N.E. from Hyderabad.

Ramghur.—A fort in Northern Hindostan, principality of Hurdoor, situated among the hills, and lately much increased and strengthened: lat. 31° 5′ N., lon. 76° 47′ E., elevation above the level of the sea 4,054 feet.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Ramghur *(Ramaghara)*.—A hilly and mountainous district, the jurisdiction of which, since it has been new modelled and extended, occupies the whole southern quarter of the Bahar province. To the north it is bounded by the district of Bahar Proper; on the south by Jushpoor, Gangpoor, and Singhboom; to the east it has Boglipoor and the Jungle Mahals; and on the west Billounja, Sirgoojah, and Jushpoor. In 1784 Chuta Nagpoor, Palamow, and Ramghow, according to Major Rennell's mensuration, contained 21,732 square miles, of which 16,732 were nearly waste.

A great proportion of this division is, from its situation, rocky and unproductive, and can never be brought into a better condition unless great encouragement be held out to the clearing of woods hitherto impenetrable; and such is the uncivilized state of the district generally that a great majority of the natives cannot be expected to understand the laws by which they are governed.

The soil of Ramghur on the declivities is principally loam; in the high ground it consists of a mixture of loam, clay, and gravel, with mica, on which pulses of different sorts are grown, and also cotton. The supply of water for domestic purposes is procured from rivers, rivulets, nullahs, jeels, wells, and tanks; but the last is generally preferred by the natives. Water that is clear and void of taste they consider the best, and do not esteem running water, which, flowing through woody and mountainous countries, is usually impregnated with minerals and astringent vegetable substances. The water, however, of large rivers, where these extraneous ingredients are much diluted, is usually good; and troops marching through hilly and woody countries, in general suffer much more from the water of small streams and nullahs than from that of tanks or large rivers. At Pinnar Coond,

in this district, there is a remarkable hot well. The rivers of Ramghur, Chuta Nagpoor, and Sirgooja, are mostly shallow, and never full except during the rains, when they flow with great rapidity. The banks are covered with rank weeds and exuberant vegetation, which is often swept away by the torrent. Rivers which during the floods contain from fifteen to twenty feet of water, fall soon after to two or three feet, and soon after dry up. The mountains of this district are wholly covered with trees, brushwood, and jungle, which forests extend far into the adjacent countries.

Commercial transactions are very insignificant, and confined mostly to the mere interchange and barter of commodities for domestic consumption. The hills abound with iron, which is collected and fused by the natives in their rude manner, and is the principal article of exportation; but the want of navigable rivers is a great obstruction to the enlargement of this traffic. The great Benares road passes through Sheregotty, and there is a distinct road that branches off from this grand trunk at Konachitty, and runs north-west to Chittra. There is also a road that runs north-east from Chittra, and afterwards falls into the great road at Sheregotty. There are many old brick forts in Ramghur, the destruction of which was recommended at an early period by the magistrate, as they afforded protection to refractory zemindars and hordes of irregular banditti. There are very few durable buildings; nor are there any private schools, or seminaries for teaching the Hindoo or Mahomedan law, education not extending beyond the accomplishments of reading and writing.

The seasons here, as elsewhere in Hindostan, may be divided into hot, cold, and rainy. The cold season commences about the end of October and terminates in the beginning or middle of March, when the hot season commences, and lasts till the middle of June. The rains then set in, and continue till about the middle of October, gradually decreasing towards the conclusion. The healthy season may be said to be from November to the setting-in of the rains; and the most unhealthy months, September and October. Traces of lead have been discovered at the base of a mountain in Ramghur called Mucundgunge, and antimony is said to be found, while iron abounds every where, more particularly at Balleah, in the mountains, where it is smelted in considerable quantities by native metallurgists. A few miles east of Hazary Baugh are beds of very fine mica, from which large transparent laminæ are procured.

In Ramghur the mouhur tree grows spontaneously and in great abundance, among the rocky and otherwise barren parts of the mountains, and provides the natives with a convenient substitute for grain, as it will keep, when pulverized, for a whole season. By the natives, however, it is principally used for making an infusion like tea, which affords a nourishing and wholesome beverage; but this process has been construed as coming within the regulations against illicit distillation. The principal rivers are the Dummodah and Burrakur; the principal towns Chittra (containing the civil establishment and gaol), Ramghur, Hazary Baugh, and Sheregotty. Throughout the eastern part of the district, and in the adjacent tracts of the Jungle Mahals, the buffaloe is used for draught and for the plough, instead of the ox. The former is a hardy and powerful animal of its class; yet six of them are required to move the same load that a pair of miserable starved bullocks would be set to draw in the plains. This waste of strength is mainly attributable to the extreme rudeness of the hill cart, which is mounted on circular pieces of board for wheels, and is almost as much inferior to the Bengal hackery, as the latter is to the English waggon.

Ramghur is but thinly inhabited, and a great majority of the natives are Hindoos of the Brahminical persuasion. One estimate makes the

inhabitants of Ramghur Proper amount to half a million, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to thirty Hindoos. The inhabitants of the most frequented towns differ not at all in feature, and very little in their language, from those of the adjacent plains, whence their progenitors in all probability migrated. The raja of Chuta Nagpoor, who formerly exercised an independent jurisdiction within the limits of his own territories, is highest in rank; but there are besides many zemindars of extensive possessions and considerable personal influence.

This district has been long fatally distinguished for the numerous crimes and devastations committed, and the annual loss of many valuable soldiers from the unhealthiness of the country. The inhabitants of the adjacent plains have an unconquerable aversion to a residence in the hills, owing to the pestilential distempers they generate, as well as to the extreme barbarity of the hill natives, and the abundance of beasts of prey, bears, tigers, wolves, and hyenas. Theft is common throughout Ramghur; but murder more prevalent among a particular class, which are the slaves possessed by chiefs inhabiting the mountainous and inaccessible interior, and of savage and ferocious habits. When petty disputes occur, these slaves are compelled by their masters to perpetrate any enormity, and are more especially employed for the purposes of assassination. Any hesitation or symptoms of repugnance on the part of the slave is attended with instant death, which is equally his fate should he fail in the attempt. On the other hand, if he succeed he is sought out by the officers of government, and executed as a murderer. The usual police has hitherto been unable to seize the cowardly instigator, and if recourse be had to a military force he retires to the jungles. Neither do the slaves attach the slightest idea of guilt to the murders they are thus delegated to commit; on the contrary, when taken, invariably confess, and appear to expect applause for having done their duty. Murder is also frequently committed through the mere ignorance and superstition of the people, who often put individuals to death under a belief that they practise magical influence, and make a destructive use of their knowledge. Lastly, the ready cash of the Hindoo pilgrims, proceeding through this district to the different places of Hindoo worship, sometimes proves too strong a temptation for poverty to resist, and murder is resorted to as the most effectual mode of concealment.—(*Fullarton, Breton, W. T. Smith, Lord Teignmouth, J. Grant, &c.*)

RAMGHUR.—A village in Northern Hindostan due south of Almora, situated on the banks of a rapid stream in a narrow winding valley, the sides of which rise to a great height, and are cultivated in narrow terraces with the most persevering industry, although the soil is so stony that many of the little fields more resemble the deposit of a torrent than an arable piece of land. The government warehouse and guard-house stand at a little height above the village. While subject to the Gorkhas there was a castle here, now dismantled and gone to decay. Iron ore is found here, which the inhabitants wash from its grosser deposits, and transport to Almora to be smelted.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

RAMGHUR.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, situated on the banks of the Dummodah river, about 190 miles N.W. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 38′ N., lon. 85° 43′ E. It originally communicated its name to the district, but has since fallen to a secondary rank.

RAMGUNGA RIVER (*Rama Ganga*).—This river has its source in Northern Hindostan among the Kumaon mountains, about twenty-five miles N.W. from the fortress of Almora, from whence it flows in a south-easterly direction through the province of Rohilcund, with a very winding stream, until it falls into the Ganges not far from Kanoje, having performed a course, including wind-

ings, of about 300 square miles, and received the accession of many rivers.

RAMGUNGE *(Rama Ganj)*.—A town in the province of Oude, twenty-seven miles S.W. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 38′ N., lon. 80° 30′ E.

RAMGUR *(Rama ghara)*.—A town in the province of Orissa, situated on the south side of the Mahanuddy river, 106 miles W. from Cuttack; lat. 20° 26′ N., lon. 84° 26′ E. The chief of this place in 1803 became a British tributary.

RAMGURRAH.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, eighteen miles N. by E. from Bellary; lat. 24° 3′ N., lon. 80° 24′ E.

RAMISSERAM *(Rameswaram, the pillar of Ram)*.—An island in the straits between Ceylon and the continent, being separated from the latter by a narrow channel. In length it may be estimated at eleven miles, by six the average breadth, and is low, sandy, uncultivated, and covered with a thin baubool jungle; lat. 9° 18′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E.

On his return from the conquest of Ceylon, after destroying Ravan, the king of the Rashasas (or opponents of the demi-gods), Ram, an incarnation of Vishnu, reflected that during his wars many Racshasas, who were also Brahmins, had been destroyed, by which feats he had incurred the heaviest guilt; to expiate these crimes therefore he set up an image of the lingam at Ramisseram, which he ordered to be worshipped, and it thenceforward became a place of pilgrimage. Such is the traditional account of this celebrated pagoda, which still remains in a tolerable state of repair. The entrance to it is by a lofty gateway about 100 feet high, covered with carved work to the summit. The door is about forty feet high, and composed of single stones, placed perpendicularly, with others crossing over; the massiveness of the workmanship resembling the Egyptian or Cyclopean style of architecture. The square of the whole is about 600 feet, and it is probably one of the most superior native edifices in India. None are permitted to enter the inner temples except the attendant Brahmins, who live in the town, and have their share of the offerings. The idol uses no other water but that brought from the Ganges, which is poured over him every morning, and then sold to the devout, thus yielding a considerable revenue to the temple.

The guardianship of this sacred isle is hereditary in a family of devotees, the chief of which is named the Pandaram, and doomed to perpetual celibacy, the succession being carried on by the sisters, or by the collateral branch. The greater part of the income is applied to his use, or to that of his relations, who have possessed the supreme power about 120 years. When Lord Valentia visited this island in 1803, the Pandaram solicited his lordship's protection for the deity and his temple.

Panban, the port of the island, is about nine miles from the great temple, the road to which has been paved the whole way by the contributions of the pious. A stranger is much struck with the breadth and regularity of the streets, the number and elegance of the stone choultries, and the extraordinary neatness of the dwellings of the Brahmins, many of them fantastically adorned in front with mythological paintings. In the inner court-yard of the Pandaram's residence is a bungalow furnished in the English style, from the top of which there is a commanding view of the ocean, whence the interminable black line of rocks, stretching across the gulf of Manaar, and known by the name of Adam's bridge, is discernible. About two miles north-east of the town, on the highest point of a rock, a small temple commemorates the spot from whence Rama is said to have directed the operations, while the bridge was constructing by Hunimaun, and his brigade of gigantic monkeys. At the south-eastern extremity of the island is the sacred bathing place, where, in the very sanctuary of Brahminical superstition,

and close by the choultry and tank made for the accommodation of pilgrims, is a Roman Catholic chapel, with a subsisting establishment of Christian priests.

The strait here is about a mile wide, but not passable except by very small vessels. The bed is rocky, and the entrance from the north only 100 feet wide, between two rocks; and as another directly faces it, and the current is rapid, much caution is necessary to navigate it in safety. In A.D. 1310 the Mahomedans under Mallek Naib invaded the Carnatic, and pushed their depredations as far as Ramisseram, where they erected a mosque; but the pagoda still enjoys its reputation for sanctity, and continues to be much visited by devotees, mendicants, anchorets and ascetics, from the remote and crafty province of Bengal. These pilgrims usually proceed in companies on foot as far as Durbhasana, after which (according to their own account) two days are occupied in passing through a wilderness to the sea-side, where they procure a boat, and cross to the island. They commonly carry water from the other sacred places they have visited, and pour it over the lingam erected at this place.

In ancient times Ramisseram was a noted point in Hindoo astronomy, to the meridian of which many Telinga and Tamul astronomers referred their calculations. Col. Lambton found it to lie 79° 22′ 5″ east of Greenwich, and 3° 28′ 50″ east of Lanca, the grand Hindoo meridian. —(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Ward, Warren, Mackenzie, Scott, &c.*)

RAMNAD *(Ramanatha)*.—A town and large zemindary in the Southern Carnatic, situated about 123 miles N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 23′ N., lon. 78° 56′ E. The Ramnad pollam, or estate, was granted to the ancestors of the present family, with the title of Sethepaties, for the defence of the road and protection of the pilgrims resorting to the sacred pagoda at Ramisseram. The whole zemindary does not contain a hill, nor is it in general so dry as that of Shevagunga, having of late years suffered from the overflowing of the Vyar river, and in the vicinity of Kilcarry there are salt marshes communicating with the sea. There are also some tracts of cotton ground.

The town of Ramnad has an irregular appearance, and has of late suffered much from the epidemic, which so greatly depopulated this quarter of India. Here is a fort commenced many years ago by the late ranny's ancestors, but never completed. It contains the palace, which is a gloomy building, with gloomy walls, and no external windows. The hall of audience is covered with mythological paintings; but in 1820 the whole building was in a wretched and forlorn condition, and had been long untenanted. Near to it are the tomb of the late ranny's deceased husband, and a Protestant church of neat architecture. The town walls are of massive stones, with loopholes on the top, but without any cannon mounted. The great tank at Ramnad, where the Vyar river terminates its course, and which is not usually filled for seven years together, in 1810, owing to the redundant rains, burst its banks and run into the sea. The ranny mentioned by Lord Valentia has been dead for many years, and the succession was so strongly disputed, that in 1820 it was under appeal to the king and council, the British government in the mean time collecting the revenues, which in 1809 amounted to about 1,10,226 star pagodas.—(*Hodgson, Lord Valentia, Fullarton, &c.*)

RAMNAGHUR *(Rama Nagara)*.—A town in the province of Allahabad, district of Benares, situated on the right bank of the Ganges, a little above the western extremity of the city of Benares. The raja usually resides in the fort of Ramnaghur, which is a huge pile of stone-building projecting into the river. He possesses also in this vicinity an elegant garden arranged after the Hin-

doo fashion, and adorned with a fine tank, summer-houses, and a magnificent bath of stone. The mythological sculptures on a pagoda near this spot, left unfinished by Raja Cheit Singh, have been much admired for the elaborate style of their execution. Cheit Singh intended to build a grand town at Ramnaghur on a regular plan, and with wide streets, after the European fashion. This purpose was frustrated by his deposition, but a tolerable idea of its scope may be formed from the two spacious streets, crossing each other at right angles, which compose the existing town of Ramnaghur.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RAMNAGUR.—A considerable town in the province of Bahar, in the terrai of Chumparun, which in 1814 was inhabited by the exiled raja of Taneer and his followers; lat. 27° 10′ N.

RAMNAGUR.—The ruins of an ancient fortress in the province of Delhi, division of Rohilcund, several miles in circumference; lat. 28° 22′ N. It appears to have had thirty-four bastions, and is known in the neighbourhood by the name of the Pandoos fort.—(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

RAMNAGUR.—The ruins of an ancient palace situated on the left bank of the Nerbudda river, sixteen miles above the fort of Mundelah, where some ancient inscriptions have been recently discovered by Capt. Fell.

RAMNEE.—A remarkable snowy peak in Northern Hindostan, visible from Bareily, estimated to be 22,768 feet above the level of the ocean; lat. 30° 20′ N., lon. 79° 38′ E.; fifty miles north from Almora.

RAMOO.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated near the southern extremity of the Chittagong district, sixty miles south from Islamabad; lat. 21° 25′ N., lon. 92° 20′ E. The Bakally or Ramoo river is one of the most considerable in the south of Chittagong; the bottom is mud, and although the water be fresh, the tide ascends for a considerable distance. By all the nations of the Burmese race this river is named the Paengwa. The vicinity of Ramoo being a fertile and populous plain, and the medium of all intercourse carried on in the neighbourhood of the Nauf river, if any ground could be found not flooded by the rains, it would be an eligible position for a frontier station towards Arracan; but, unfortunately, from the hills to the sea no spot of ground more than fifty yards square beyond the level of the inundation is to be found. The place is also known from experience to be singularly unhealthy; yet it apparently suits the temperament of the Mughs, who set all malaria at defiance.—(*F. Buchanan, Colonel Thomas Morgan, &c.*)

RAMPOOR (*Rama pura*).—A large town in the province of Delhi, the jaghire and residence of a Rohillah nabob, where the Pushtoo or Afghan language is still much spoken, and the genuine Afghan manners and customs retained. It stands on the banks of the Cosilla; lat. 28° 50′ N., lon. 78° 54′ E., eighteen miles east from Moradabad.

This town and attached territory, at the peace of Loldong in 1774, were secured to Fyzoola Khan, a Rohillah chief, at which time the revenue was valued at thirty lacks of rupees per annum. During the life time of Fyzoola Khan Rampoor was very prosperous, and at his death comprehended a space four miles in circumference, surrounded by a thick bamboo hedge, within which were mud fortifications. On the death of Fyzoola Khan in 1794, his eldest son Mahomed Ali succeeded, but was soon afterwards assassinated by his second son Gholaum Mahomed, who seized the throne. A British force was marched to expel the usurper, which was attacked by the Rohillah army within a few miles of Bareily; but they were repulsed after a severe action, in which the former had 600 men and fourteen officers killed and wounded. Gholaum Mahomed sur

rendered soon afterwards, and the accumulated treasures of Fyzoola Khan, amounting to 332,000 gold mohurs (£607,000), were delivered up to Asoph ud Dowlah, who presented the British army with eleven lacks of rupees (£127,000). Possession was also taken of the Rampoor jaghire for the Oude government; but a jaghire or estate was reserved for Ahmed Ali Khan, a minor, the grandson of Fyzoola Khan, of which the town of Rampoor formed part, with a revenue of about ten lacks of rupees. In 1808 it yielded 10,69,077 rupees.

Whatever misgovernment this territory may have undergone, it certainly has not had the effect of checking the productive energies of the soil or inhabitants, for a more richly cultivated tract of country, in 1820, was scarcely to be seen in India. The town of Rampoor is still a large and populous place, though built in a straggling manner, and composed principally of mud huts. The only good streets are the chowk and another which crosses its western extremity at right angles. The old and new forts both open into the latter. These are brick buildings, containing various edifices for the accommodation of the nabob and his family. The chowk is decorated with a lofty mosque. The favourite personal residence of the present (1820) nabob, Ahmed Ali Khan, is an indifferent house of three stories, built in the English fashion, and he has also a dwelling at Moradabad. He is fond of field sports, and courts the society of English gentlemen of a similar disposition; but is not much respected by his own subjects. The celebrated bamboo hedge of Rampoor still remains in high beauty, but it probably never was of any formidable depth, and as it might be easily penetrated in many parts, it could afford no effectual protection against an active enemy. The mud walls within the fence are falling to decay. The remains of Fyzoola Khan are deposited in a mausoleum raised on an extensive terrace of masonry, in the plain to the north of the town, where it is shaded by a thick bower of the peepul tree.—(*Fullarton, Public MS. Documents, Colonel Franklin, Rennell, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Rampoor.—A small town in the province of Delhi, fourteen miles S. by W. from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 47′ N., lon. 77° 25′ E.

Rampoor.—A small town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, situated immediately to the north of Rooderpoor, from which it is separated by the stream of the Goula, forty-one miles N. from Bareily, and twenty-three from the base of the northern mountains at Bamooree.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Rampoor.—A town in Northern Hindostan, the capital of the Bussaher principality, seventy miles north from Nahan; lat. 31° 27′ N., lon. 77° 38′ E.; 3,300 feet above the level of the sea. It stands on the left bank of the Sutuleje, which here, in the month of June, is only 210 feet wide, and being confined by lofty precipices, foams and dashes below. In the days of its prosperity it is said to have contained three or four hundred houses, with a large well-filled bazar; but in 1816 there were not above 150 stone dwellings slated, with a few others, rather better, belonging to the raja. Before the Gorkha invasion it was a sort of entrepôt between Cashmere, Lahdack, Cashgar and Yarcund, with Hindostan, for which commerce the passage of the river Sutuleje forms a convenient route. It is still a place of considerable sanctity, and possesses several small temples, well supplied with Brahmins and religious mendicants. The communication over the Sutuleje to the Cooloo side is by the hill bridge, named a jhoola, which consists of some ropes drawn across, which are traversed by a block of wood, on which the passenger sits, and is drawn across the river, which rushes below with a furious stream. During the fair an assemblage of Tartars, Gerards, and other traders collect to the number

of 3,000.—(*James Fraser, Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

RAMPOORA.—A large walled town in the province of Malwa, the former residence of the Holcar family; lat. 24° 27′ N., lon. 75° 32′ E., and elevated 1,360 feet above the level of the sea. The Cheetore range of mountains, which extends on the north of Rampoora, forms one of the boundaries of Malwa. This place stands on the north bank of the Taloye river, distant about one mile, and was a place of great note before the removal of the Holcar family to Indore. To the north-east there is a Hindoo temple of some celebrity, which is visited by the pious of that faith during the month of April.

In 1818 a division of infantry under Roshun Beg and Roshun Khan, which had belonged to Holcar's army, and continued refractory after the battle of Maheidpoor, was attacked by the army under General Brown, and nearly destroyed, although the two Roshuns escaped. Subsequently, in order to consolidate the possessions of Ghuffoor Khan, Rampoor was conferred on him.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RAMPORA.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, eighteen miles N.N.W. from Jaloun; lat. 26° 23′ N., lon. 79° 7′ E.

RAMREE.—A portion of territory in the British province of Arracan, situated about lat. 19° N., which in 1826 was established to be an island, being in that year circumnavigated by the Osprey gun-pinnace.

The great entrance of the only creek that communicates with the capital of Ramree lies about two miles to the south of the north-east point of the island, which forms the southern boundary of Hastings harbour. About a mile to the north Osprey creek appears, and runs into Ramree creek about midway between the great entrance and the capital, with which there is not any communication by water but through these passages.

At the northern extremity of Hastings harbour lies a ridge of straggling rocks, to the eastward of which a passage takes its course to Mae; to the west of it lies the entrance of the large passage that runs along the east side of Commodore's island, through which channel all vessels of burthen pass into Fletcher Hayes' straits towards Aeng, Talak, Arracan towns, and Combermere bay, which brings them to the sea. Entering the straits, many interesting objects appear: lofty mountains, numerous islands, many openings, &c., forming, within the straits, channels, and passages, which in general, however, afford good anchorage ground. The tide rises at full and change fourteen feet in the straits, channels, rivers, and harbours on the coast.

On the southern extremity of Ramree is a ridge of low hills, among which are several volcanoes, reported to discharge flames occasionally, and quantities of iron pyrites; but in their tranquil state only a greasy mud bubbles up, mixed with a little petroleum. Small volcanoes abound in this vicinity, for there are several on the neighbouring island of Cheduba, mostly of the description called mud volcanoes, strongly impregnated with sulphur. These volcanoes are worshipped by the Mughs and other natives, who think they are occasioned by the great naga or serpent who supports the world, and takes this method of giving vent to his agony. In 1827 Cheduba continued mostly covered with thick jungle, but well watered by hill streams, on the banks of which patches of tobacco, cotton, red pepper, hemp, sugar-cane, and rice were to be seen, the soil being excellent. In the above year the number of houses in Cheduba amounted to 2,300, the inhabitants to about 12,000 persons; with respect to Ramree, we have as yet had but few statistical details. Up to 1827 no elephants had been discovered on Cheduba. — (*Commodore Hayes, Public Journals, &c.*)

RAMREE.—A town in the province of Arracan, the capital of the preceding island, situated about lat. 19° N., lon. 93° 15′ E.; 117 miles south from Arracan town. In February 1825, when first attacked by the British, they were repulsed; but in the following April it surrendered without resistance, although possessed of strong defences. These consisted of a stockade in the centre of the town, protected by several forts on the adjacent hills, besides entrenchments on the Ramree creek. In 1827 the town of Ramree contained 8,000 inhabitants, who were rapidly increasing.—(*Public Journals, MS. Documents, &c.*)

RAMTEK.—A celebrated temple and place of pilgrimage, devoted to Rama, in the province of Gundwana, dominions of Nagpoor, frequented by worshippers from the neighbourhood, and from the Nizam's dominions north of the Godavery. The number in 1821 were estimated at 100,000.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

RANAPOOR.—A town and small fort of masonry in the province of Gujerat, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda; lat. 21° 57′ N., lon. 73° 20′ E. In 1820 it belonged to the Guicowar, and contained 200 houses.

RANEAH.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, fourteen miles west of Sirsah, formerly the residence of Zabeta Khan, a Bhatty chieftain. In 1810 its population was estimated at 5,000 inhabitants. At Danoor, within six miles of Raneah, there is a fine jeel or shallow lake, which is said to be a continuation of the one at Jindah, the whole (if this report be correct) extending thirty miles, with a wheat cultivation on its banks. We are not informed whether these jeels be permanent, or only created by the rainy season.—(*E. Gardner, Col. Adams, &c.*)

RANEEBAUGH.—A town in Northern Hindostan, opposite to Serinagur, from which it is separated by the Alaonanda river; lat. 30°13′ N., lon. 78° 6′ E.

RANKAO.—A low marshy island off the north coast of Sumatra, which produces a large proportion of the raw sago imported into Malacca and Singapoor, for the manufacture of pearl sago. An unconverted race of aborigines, and not the Malays, are the sole cultivators and preparers of the sago.

RANGAMATTY (*rangamati, coloured earth*).—A subdivision of the Rungpoor district, in the province of Bengal, of which it occupies the north-eastern extremity. During the Mogul government this extensive tract was comprehended within the jurisdiction of Rungpoor, where it still continues. It stretches on both sides of the Brahmaputra easterly to the confines of Assam, throughout a wild and little cultivated region, and in 1784 was estimated to contain 2,629 square miles, many parts of which were, and still are, capable of cultivation; but at present they yield little to the sovereign except a few elephants of a bad quality, annually caught in the interior and boundary forests. Rangamatty is intersected by the Brahmaputra, and contains the territorial subdivisions of Michpara, Howeragbaut, Bijnee (within the British territories), and the great forest of Parbut Joyaur.—(*F. Buchanan, J. Grant, &c.*)

RANGAMATTY.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, the capital of the preceding subdivision; lat. 26°9′ N., lon. 90° E., fifty-two miles N.E. from the town of Rungpoor. Sixty years ago this place is said to have contained 1,500 houses, several of which were inhabited by Mogul chiefs, and others by Portuguese. At present its condition is very miserable, exhibiting only 250 scattered huts, and of public buildings the vestiges of a fort and mosque. From the town to the forest of Parbut Joyaur some traces of habitations may be observed, with many fruit-trees scattered through the forest. The police office for this division is stationed at Goalpara.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

RANGAMATTY.—A village in the province of Bengal, situated on the right bank of the Bhagirathi river below Berhampoor, and rendered conspicuous by its position on an elevated mound of red iron soil, which here pierces the flat alluvial crust that forms the general surface of the country.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RANGOON.—The principal seaport in the Burmese dominions, situated in the province of Pegu; lat. 16° 35′ N., lon. 96° 25′ E. This town stands on the north bank of the Rangoon branch of the Irawady, about twenty-eight miles above its debouchure into the gulf of Martaban. Its extent along the river is about a mile, and its breadth 650 yards. It is enclosed by a stockade of teak timber and planks from ten to twelve feet high, having two gateways on the northern face, and one on each of the others. From the two northern gateways a good brick road proceeds, running over a gently rising ground, and gradually converging until they meet at the distance of two miles and a half at the Shoedagon pagoda. The space between these roads being tolerably clear of jungle, was after the conquest selected for quartering the British troops. The ground slopes considerably to the west of this triangular space, and the lines rested on a thick wood, which closed in on the north and north-east. On the eastern line particularly, on approaching the pagoda, the ground rises abruptly to an elevation of 200 feet from the surface of the river, and there is an extensive view from the summit over a tract consisting of low rice fields, intersected by the ramifications of the Syriam and Rangoon rivers. The province of which Rangoon is the capital is named by the Burmese Henzawuddy.

The town is divided into streets mostly running parallel, with transverse lines of houses crossing at right angles. The streets are narrow, but formed of pounded brick, with a rise in the centre to throw the water off, and when in tolerable repair are sufficiently commodious. The houses, as among other trans-Gangetic nations, are raised on posts to escape the dirt and stagnant water accumulated below. In the suburbs many of these are raised within high-water mark, when at ebb tide the exhalations from the mud, filth, and putrid fish is most disgustingly offensive. Herds of meagre swine roam about as scavengers by day, and at night are relieved by packs of hungry dogs. The river water is turbid, but (excepting during the hot months, when it becomes brackish) is considered sufficiently wholesome. The climate is very analogous to that of Calcutta, being divided into the cold, hot, and rainy seasons. In November the thermometer ranges from 60° to 86° Fahrenheit, in March and April, even in the course of one day, from 72° to 101°.

The Shoedagon pagoda rises in splendour above the town, presenting a striking contrast to the scene below. It stands on the summit of an eminence, about two miles and a half from the town. The conical hill on which it stands is seventy-five feet above the road, and the area at the top comprehends about two acres, in the centre of which space it stands, resembling in shape an inverted speaking-trumpet, 338 feet high (diameter at the base 310 feet), surmounted by a cap or tee of brass forty-five feet high, the whole richly gilded. The two roads to it from the town are crowned on both sides with small Buddhist temples, all private property, every Birman who can afford it making it a point of honour to erect one to Gaudma; but once completed, pay little attention as to their preservation, it being considered much more meritorious to build a new one, even of inferior size, than to repair an old one: the Birman empire is in consequence covered with ruinous temples, pagodas, and chapels mouldering to decay. In 1824 this enormous edifice was converted into a fortress, and garrisoned with a battalion of Europeans, while the numerous smaller religious buildings

that lined the two roads afforded good shelter to a large body of troops. Rangoon also contains a Portuguese and Armenian church.

The arrival of the British fleet here, on the 10th of May 1824, was quite unexpected, the town was in consequence easily captured, the principal civil and military authorities having fled in much consternation. Instead of a flourishing commercial city it presented a most miserable appearance, which rather improved before the British evacuated it. This took place on the 9th December 1826, when it was delivered over to the Burmese authorities, and the garrison embarked for the new settlement of Moulmein.—(*Medical Transactions, Snodgrass, Trant, &c.*)

RANIPOORA.—A small town in the province of Candeish, near the passes of the Satpoora mountains, which in 1816 belonged to the Peshwa; lat. 21° 40′ N., lon. 74°14′ E., eighty miles E.N.E. from Surat. In 1816 it contained 150 houses, inhabited by Arabs, Maharattas, and Bheels.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

RANNUTSH.—A town in Northern Hindostan, subject to the Gorkhas of Nepaul, seventeen miles east from Jemlah; lat. 29° 13′ N., lon. 81° 33° E.

RANNYPOOR.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, thirty-five miles S.E. from Jansi; lat. 25° 20′ N., lon. 79° 4′ E.

RANOOJA.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Nolye, which in 1820 belonged to Sindia.

RANTAMPOOR *(Rin-t'ham-bhor, properly Rana St'hamba Brahmara, the town of the pillar of war).*—A town and strong fortress in the province of Ajmeer, seventy-five miles S.E. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 26° N., lon. 76°18′ E. This is one of the most inaccessible of Indian fortresses, being situated in the centre of several ranges of hills. It belongs to Jeypoor.

RAREE.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, district of the Southern Concan, twenty-one miles N.W. from Goa; lat. 15° 43′ N., lon. 73° 48′ E.

RATGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty-two miles west of Saugor; lat. 23° 47′ N., lon. 78° 33′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah which, in 1820 belonged to Sindia, and yielded him a revenue of 10,000 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RATH.—A hilly tract in the province of Malwa, formerly considered as separating that province from Gujerat. The southern portion of this tract, lying between Tandlah and the Nerbudda, constitutes what the Hindoos now term Rath, and comprehends the petty states of Jabbooah, Ally, Babra, Jobut, and lands of several independent chiefs, a great proportion of whose subjects are Bheels. Although a considerable part of this territory consists of rocky hills and thick jungles, yet it contains many fertile and well-watered valleys, lying amidst the successive ranges of its hills, which follow almost invariably a northerly direction, nearly parallel and equi-distant. This country forms an intermediate gradation, elevated above Gujerat, and rising towards Malwa Proper.

Excepting the capitals of the petty states above named, Rath contains few towns or villages, and among the first Jabbooah may be reckoned the principal. The hills here abound in iron ore, and the forests, besides the teak and bamboo, afford many timber trees adapted for ornamental use as well as building. There are several well-frequented roads through the division, connecting Malwa with Gujerat.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RATNAPOORA *(ratna pura, the city of gems).*—A town in the island of Ceylon, forty miles S.E. from Columbo; lat. 6° 39′ N., lon. 80° 33′ E. It is a military post, situated on the right bank of the Kala Ganga, which is thus far navigable for boats. Although not eight miles in a straight direction from the summit of Adam's Peak, the river here is scarcely fifty

feet above the level of the sea.—(*Davy, &c.*)

RATPHRI.—A considerable town in the interior of Siam, above Bankok, which in 1826 was estimated to contain 10,000 inhabitants.—(*Leal, &c.*)

RATTOLAW.—A sea-port town in the Gujerat province, situated on the gulf of Cambay; lat. 22° 3′ N., lon. 72° 15′ E. By arrangements made with the Guicowar in 1802 the British government acquired this harbour, which is on the windward side of the gulf of Cambay, and well calculated, from its situation and easy access, to attract the commerce of the Gujerat peninsula and of the neighbouring country.

RAUJCOTE.—A town near the centre of the Gujerat peninsula, the chief of which, Kooer Dadajee, was in 1809 prevailed on (at least in appearance) to renounce the practice of female infanticide.

RAUJPOOR.—A town in the Gujerat province, eighty-seven miles N.E. from Cambay; lat. 22° 57′ N., lon. 74°-4′ E.

RAUJGHUR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, twenty-five miles E. by S. from Kotah; lat. 25° 9′ N., lon. 76° 7′ E.

RAURAH.—A town in Northern Hindostan, subject to the Gorkhas of Nepaul, fourteen miles N. by E. from Jemlah; lat. 29° 23′ N., lon. 81° 23′ E.

RAVEY (*Iravati*) RIVER.—This is the third river of the Punjab, and the Hydroates of Alexander's historians. Its source has never been satisfactorily ascertained, but it issues from the highlands of Lahore, near the declivity of the Himalaya mountains, from whence it flows in a south-westerly direction, and enters the plains near Rajepoor, from which point the canal of Shahnehr (now extinct) was formerly conducted to Lahore, a distance of about eighty miles. This canal was intended, besides the purposes of irrigation, to supply the city of Lahore with water during the dry monsoon, when most of the Indian rivers are from twenty to thirty feet below the level of their banks. At Miannee ghaut, on the 12th of August 1809, when it had attained its greatest height, the breadth was found to be only 513 yards; the deepest part twelve feet, and that not above forty yards across. In the cold season it is there fordable, not having above four feet of water. In this vicinity it has many quick-sands, and its banks are low, but well wooded. The oblique distance from Vizierabad ghaut on the Chinaub to Meannee ghaut on the Ravey is fifty-five miles. This doab is flat land, with tolerably good soil, although more elevated than the doab of the Chinaub and Jhylum.

After entering the plains, the course of the Ravey continues south-west until it passes the city of Lahore, and from thence nearly in the same direction, latterly inclining more to the west, until it unites with the combined waters of the Chinaub and Jhylum near Ahmedpoor, forty miles above the city of Mooltan, after which their rapidity and breadth are particularly noticed by the historians of Timour and Alexander. In respect to its volume of water, this is the least of the Punjab streams, and the whole length of its course to its final junction with the Indus, probably does not exceed 580 miles, including windings.—(*Macartney, Rennell, &c.*)

RAWAIR.—A town in the province of Candeish situated in a pleasant valley, which in 1816 was so devastated by Bheels and Pindaries that it scarcely yielded any revenue; lat. 21° 17′ N., lon. 76° 7′ E., ten miles W. by S. from Boorhanpoor.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

RAWAK ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, which forms a harbour on the north-east coast of Wageeoo. The channel is a mile wide, with good mud soundings, from ten to fifteen fathoms. Sago, made up in cakes, may be purchased here in large quantities: fish and turtle

are also plenty. The Malays and natives cut the latter into small pieces and stew it in green bamboos. Goats and fowls are not to be had. —(*Forrest, &c.*)

Rawan's Hrad *(or Roodh)* Lake. —This lake is within a short distance west of Manasarovara, probably not more than ten miles, but being less holy has not been examined with the same attention. Rawan Hrad, by native travellers, was always represented as surrounding and insulating some large portions of rock, a little detached from the great Himachil, but Mr. Moorcroft had reason to believe this description incorrect. According to his observation, the lake consists of two legs or branches, which are long and not very broad. One leg extending towards Manasarovara, is strait, and ends in a point; the other stretches to the south among the hills, and where they diverge, opposite to the town of Darchan or Gangri, an angle is formed. To Mr. Moorcroft the eastern limb appeared about five miles in length; but on account of the intervening mountains, no estimate could be formed of the southern limb. A cascade issues from the rocks above Darchan, and falls into the Rawan Hrad, which is supplied by the melting of the snow of the great mountains, on the base of which it is situated. In consequence of these thaws many rivulets are known to proceed from the southern face of the Caila's ridge; but it is also probable a large quantity of water descends from the northern face of the Himalaya chain. At a distance its waters seem of an indigo blue colour. From the west end flows the Satadru or Sutuleje river.

Vast numbers of geese breed on the banks of this lake, which is also probably better stored with fish than Manasarovara, as one edge of its bank is fringed with grass of a considerable height, and there is swampy land at the mouth of streams which discharge its waters into its basin. The natives assert that it is four times larger than Manasarovara. The name is derived from Rawan, a celebrated demon, the antagonist of the demigods, and legitimate sovereign of Ceylon, from whence he was expelled by the great Parasu Rama, assisted by the sage counsels of his gigantic prime minister, the monkey Hunimaun.—(*Moorcroft, Webb, &c.*)

Rawel Pindee.—A town belonging to the Seiks in the province of Lahore, about sixty-eight miles east from the Indus river; lat. 33° 36′ N., lon. 73° 45′ E. Viewed from without it makes a handsome appearance, being composed of terraced houses, and is besides of considerable extent, and populous. In the immediate neighbourhood the country is open, and under tolerable cultivation; but from Hussein Abdaul to Rawel Pindee the country is generally waste, and much intersected with deep ravines. The Mogul emperors cut a road through a ridge of hills, about half way between the two places, which remains in good repair. It is about three-fourths of a mile in length, and paved with large masses of hard blue stone, well fitted into each other. The language spoken here by the Seik is the dialect known by the name of the Punjaubee, and from this place are usually dated the north-western acbars, or native newspapers, giving an account of the proceedings of the chiefs of Cabul, Khorasan, Cashmere, Lahore, and Mooltan, and of their predatory movements. These vehicles of intelligence, however, can never be depended on, being frequently the mere invention of the writer, who at the same time is so little anxious to vary his information, that with a very little modification the news of one year does for that of the succeeding one.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Rayghaut.—A town in the province of Lahore, thirty-eight miles east from Amritsir; lat. 31° 34′ N., lon. 75° 27′ E.

Raygopaulpet.—A town in the province of Hyderabad, fifty-one

miles north from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 18° N., lon. 78° 20′ E.

RAYGUNGE *(Rayaganj)*.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, although it has only arisen since A.D. 1780. The streets are narrow, dirty, and confused, but it is a place of great bustle, and crowded with boat-men and drivers of cattle, of which last the inhabitants allege 5,000, loaded, arrive daily. In 1808 it contained 300 dwellings, and about 700 huts.

RECCAN *(or Rakan)* RIVER.—A river on the north-east coast of Sumatra; the entrance of which is about lat. 2° 10′ N., lon. 100° 37′ E. The mouth is about fifteen miles wide, but it soon narrows further up, and is dangerous on account of the great rapidity of the tides, which run with a bore at the rate of seven miles per hour, and rise to the height of thirty feet.—*(Anderson, &c.)*

RECHNA DOABEH.—A doab in the province of Lahore, bounded by the Chinaub and Ravey rivers, respecting which our topographical information still remains very defective. The extent of the Doabeh Rechna, which is mentioned by Abul Fazel, is considerable, its cultivation more attended to, and its population greater than that of Jennut, as it contains several towns of note, such as Bisooly, Vizierabad, and Eminabad.

REECHWA.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harowtee, surrounded by a substantial stone wall, and in 1820 containing about 1,500 inhabitants.—*(Malcolm, &c.)*

REHER.—A town in the province of Delhi, about thirty-five miles north from Moradabad; lat. 29° 21′ N., lon. 78° 39′ E. The word Reher designates a salt earth, and is probably descriptive of the soil, as being either nitrous or saline.

REHMUTPOOR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, division of Mortizabad, containing several Hindoo temples, pleasantly situated on a stream that falls into the Krishna. It belongs to the Putwurden family, and stands fourteen miles from Satara.—*(Fullarton, &c.)*

REITAL.—A village in Northern Hindostan, division of Roween; lat. 30° 48′ N. In 1817 this place contained thirty-five houses, of two and three stories high. They are substantial and look well externally, but are exceedingly filthy and full of vermin within. They are constructed of the Deodhar and Cailon pine, supposed to be the cedar of Lebanon, the most noble and durable of all trees. Reital is 7,108 feet above the level of the sea, and 1,200 above the bed of the Ganges.—*(Captain Hodgson, &c.)*

REJANG.—A country in the island of Sumatra, divided on the north-west from the petty state of Anak Sungei, of which Mocomoco is the capital, by the small river Uri, near that of Kuttaun, which last, with the district of Laboon on its banks, bounds it on the north or inland side. The country of Musi, where the Palembang river rises, forms its limits to the eastward. Bencoolen confines it on the south-east.

The Rejangs are divided into tribes, of which there are four principal ones. They live in villages, each under a head or magistrate styled dupati, and seldom exceed 100 in number. These dupaties meet in a judicial capacity, when the pangeran (a Javanese title), or feudal chief of the country, presides over the whole, but has little or no coercive power. Though the rank of dupati is not strictly hereditary, the son, when of age and capable, generally succeeds his father; if too young, the father's brother, or such of the family as appear best qualified.

The system of letters of the people of Rejang has the same natural order as the Devanagari; but in every series one letter is omitted, because it is never to be found in the languages of the Eastern islanders. The Rejang dialect is formed by a

mixture of the Batta and Malay.—(*Marsden, Jones, Leyden, &c.*)

REMBANG.—A district in the island of Java, which, according to the British census of 1815, contained 158,530 inhabitants, of which number 3,891 were Chinese. The town of Rembang stands in lat. 6° 42′ S., lon. 111° 22′ E., sixty-seven miles N.E. from Samarang. It is large and populous, and has a number of good houses, being healthy, abundantly supplied with provinces, and advantageously placed for trade. The largest portion of the district is set apart for the forest department. A road extends from hence to Solo, through a high and mountainous country.—(*Thorn, Raffles, &c.*)

REONEE TEMPLE.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, eight miles N.W. from that of Bhadrinath; lat. 29° 40′ N., lon. 79° 31′ E., 6,490 feet above the level of the sea.

RESOULABAD (*Rasulabad, the abode of the prophet*).—A town in the province of Agra, thirty miles S.S.W. from Kanoje; lat. 26° 40′ N., lon. 79° 40′ E.

REUNA.—A town in the province of Allahabad, eighty-six miles S.S.E. from Chatterpoor; lat. 23° 52′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E.

REWAH (*Reva*).—A division of the Allahabad province, which composed a fourth part of the ancient province of Callinjer, and with Sohagepoor was dismembered from Bhatta by Aurengzebe, and nominally annexed to Allahabad; but it does not appear, according to the European sense of the phrase, that this place was ever effectually brought under the Mogul government, although tribute was occasionally exacted. The town of Rewah stands on the banks of the Bichanuddy river, which runs under the fort in lat. 24° 34′ N., lon. 81° 19′ E., sixty-nine miles S. by W. from the city of Allahabad. The raja's house is in the fort, which is of stone and very large; the suburbs are extensive, and the country contains several other walled towns, such as Mow, Raypoor, Muckonabad, and Douree. The chief rivers are the Tonse, the Mahana, and the Beghar.

The greater part of the Rewah country is an elevated table-land, supported on the north by an abrupt front of sand-stone rock, which rises almost perpendicular for two or three hundred feet from a sloping base, and viewed from the plains, appears a scarped line of fortified heights. The Rewah raja possesses also a considerable tract below this rocky barrier, which unites by a common boundary with the British dominions. The country in the neighbourhood of these ghauts, and for some miles below them, is covered with jungle: but there are few parts of the British provinces more highly cultivated than the higher regions of Rewah. The condition of the peasantry, nevertheless, appears to be sufficiently wretched, for although their houses are adorned with creepers, and roofed with alternate stripes of red and white tiles, they are on the whole worse lodged than most of the peasantry on the plains. There are not at present any temples of note within the Rewah territories, but the ruins of some, especially near Raypoor, are still extant, and several immense tanks are to be seen. At Myhur there is a curious hill in the shape of a cone and very steep on all sides, on the top of which is a small Hindoo temple, to which the ascent is by 523 steps, each about fourteen inches high, and almost perpendicular.

A large proportion of the waters that fall during the rainy season on the table-land of Rewah is precipitated over its rocky margin in numerous cataracts, so that it is hardly possible at that season of the year to approach the ghauts in any direction from below without having a waterfall in sight. Where these waters chance to have been collected into considerable streams before reaching the precipice, their continued action during a series of ages appears to have formed deep ravines, indenting

sometimes for six or eight miles into the table-land, with mural precipices on each side, thereby giving a wilder and more sublime character to the scenery in the vicinity of the cataracts, and more especially those of the Tonse, Beyhar, and Mahana. The existence of this last (although so close to the British territories) was completely unknown to Europeans until the expedition against Rewah in 1813. That of the Beyhar is one of the highest in the world, being a single unbroken fall of 360 feet.

The cataract of the Tonse, however, about one mile and a half west of the former, though only 200 feet in height, is the grandest of the whole, owing to its immense volume of water, and the fine succession of rapids above the fall. When viewed by Mr. Fullarton towards the conclusion of September 1819, the breadth of the descending column of water appeared to be about sixty feet, and its depth at the very margin not less than eight feet. The fall of the Mahana is at Kentee, about fifteen miles east from that of the Beyhar, and seventy S. by W. from Allahabad. Its height is 310 feet. None of these cataracts are easily accessible, except from the table-land above, which is so flat that the cataracts cannot be seen until within a few yards of them. Their position, however, is indicated by the spray, which may be seen three miles off, and looks like a vapour rising from the surface of the earth.

The modern dominions of the Rewah raja border for a considerable distance on the south-eastern frontier of the most eastern portion of Bundelcund, and join to that part of the Allahabad district situated to the right of the Jumna. In 1810 these territories were an asylum to all the malcontents and criminals, both from the British districts and the Oude dominions. The Singhranah district was then controlled by five native chiefs, whose possessions, comprehending from eighty to a hundred villages each, were subdivided into several zemindaries; but the raja of Mow was the most powerful, and the hereditary chief of the Singhranies. From all these the Rewah raja was sufficiently powerful to levy tribute, having, ever since 1814, successfully pursued a plan of reducing all his feudatories to absolute dependence, before which their subjection was little more than nominal. In 1813 a British detachment entered the Rewah territory, and destroyed a great number of petty forts, to the great joy of the peaceably disposed inhabitants. The annual rent of the tract annexed on this occasion to the British dominions amounted to 40,000 rupees, without including Chóorhat or Raypoor.—(*Fullarton, J. Grant, Public MS. Documents, Richardson, &c.*)

Rewary (*Revari*).—A town in the province of Delhi, fifty miles S.W. from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 17′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E. The Rewary pergunnah was one of those given to the Bhurtpoor raja in 1803, but resumed in consequence of his subsequent treachery. The town is a considerable entrepôt for the commerce carried on from the city and neighbourhood of Delhi to the south-westward. The intercourse is great and constant, and its security as a depôt for valuables contributes greatly to the trade and prosperity of this frontier.—(*Archibald Seton, Metcalfe, &c.*)

Rhera River.—A river in the province of Gundwana, district of Sirgoojah, remarkable for the purity and depth of its stream at all seasons.

Rhio.—A Dutch settlement in the Eastern seas situated near Singapoor, on the island by Europeans named Bintang, but for which the natives have not any name. In 1818 a treaty of commerce was negotiated by Major Farquhar with the raja mooda of Bintang, who signed on behalf of the Sultan of Johore, Pahang, and their dependencies. This settlement has become of more importance to the

Dutch since the cession of their former establishments on the coast of Malacca, and the establishment of Singapoor.

Rhotas *(Rahatas)*.—A town, with a pergunnah attached, in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, the most westerly of the Bahar province, being bounded in that direction by the Caramnassa; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 83° 50′ E., eighty-one miles travelling distance south-east from Benares.

The fortress of Rhotas stands on the level top of a mountain. The only entrance to it is a very narrow road through a steep ascent of two miles from the bottom of the hill to the gates, which are three in number, one above the other, defended by guns and large stones ready to be rolled down. The square contents of the fortified table-land on the top of the mountain is more than ten miles, which at present presents the aspect of a wilderness overgrown with tree and grass jungle, and exhaling a pestilential vapour for two-thirds of the year. On one side runs the river Sone under an immense precipice, another river in the same manner passes close to the other side, and both meeting a short way below, form the hill into a triangular peninsula. On the third side there is a very deep valley covered with impervious woods, which spread all over the mountain (about 1,000 feet in height), and render the fortress almost inaccessible.

Two gateways and many parts of the battlements are still entire, and the ruins of the palace, gardens, tanks, &c. still exhibit indications of ancient magnificence. With the exception of two Hindoo temples of great beauty, all the other remains are obviously of Mahomedan origin. Shere Shah, the Afghan, took this fortress by a very shallow stratagem from Raja Chintamun, the last of a long dynasty of Hindoo sovereigns, who had for many centuries ruled this quarter of Hindostan. Shere Shah made it a dépôt for his family and treasure, but after his death it must have again reverted to the Hindoos, as in 1575 it was captured from a raja of that faith by the Emperor Acber. For many years subsequent to the conquest of Bahar by the British, an opinion was prevalent among the natives that treasure to a large amount had been concealed in this vicinity by Cossim Ali or his agents, when compelled to evacuate the province in 1764; but subsequent local investigation in 1813 furnished no practical proof of any such deposit having ever been made. In 1819 the fort of Rhotas was occupied by an experimental branch of the government stud, and the beautiful Dewan Khaneh, of which Daniell published a drawing, had been converted into a stable for breeding horses.—(*Fullarton, Stewart, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Riao Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, thirty miles in circumference, situated in the channel between Gilolo and the island of Morty; lat. 2° 30′ N., lon. 128° E.

Ringrode.—A town in the province of Malwa, thirteen miles from the town of Amjerah. In 1820 it belonged to the Amjerah raja, and contained about 400 houses.

Rikhesur.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, twenty-seven miles S.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 25′ N., lon. 80° 5′ E.

Rising.—A petty chiefship in Northern Hindostan, occupied by a branch of the Tanahung family, formerly one of the twenty-four rajaships, but at present subject to the Nepaulese government; lat. 27° 46′ N., lon. 84° E., sixty miles west from Catmandoo. The image of Siva, in the temple named Mąkundeswar, attracts considerable assemblies of votaries at particular periods.

Rispe.—A village of Tibet, in the neighbourhood of which are many remarkable tumuli.—(*Lieut. Gerard, &c.*)

Robagiri.—A Garrow village in

the pergunnah of Currybarry, about twenty-five miles inland from the Brahmaputra river, in an easterly direction. North of this place there is a mountain above 4,000 feet high. —(*D. Scott, &c.*)

Rodauk *(or Rootho)*.—A town in Tibet, past which the Lahdack river flows, it having been traced to Draus, where it joins the Indus to this place. According to native information the road from hence to Lahdack is along the course of the Lahdack river, the journey occupying twenty-five days. The best shawl-wool is carried from hence to Lahdack on sheep, on account of the hilliness of the country.

A later account (about 1820) describes Rodauk as a populous place on the right bank of the Indus, containing above 300 families. A great quantity of salt is procured from this vicinity, the principal lakes yielding which are named Gok, Dungcham, Meedoom, Chaka, and Chakchak. Borax is found in Challe Chaka lake, near Rodauk, and in many other parts about Garoo, Mapang, and Leh, and all the rivers yield small grains of gold.—(*Elphinstone, Macartney, Public Journals, &c.*)

Rodore.—A fortified town, and apparently thriving place, in the province of Delhi.

Rogonautpoor *(Raghu natha pura)*.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of the Jungle Mahals, 130 miles N.W. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 32′ N., lon. 86° 44′ E. This place is remarkable for a very picturesque group of black, conical, granite rocks, the haunt of bears and leopards, and separated from the town during the rains by an extensive sheet of water. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Rohanna.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty miles S.S.E. from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 35′ N., lon. 77° 41′ E.

Rohilcund *(Rahilkhánd)*.—This territory, named in Sanscrit Kuttair, comprehended that part of Hindostan situated east of the Ganges between the twenty-eighth and twenty-ninth degrees of north latitude, and from seventy-eight to eighty of east longitude; commencing in the vicinity of the Lolldong pass, at the foot of the hills through which the Ganges penetrates, it extended south-eastward to the town of Pillibeet. On the north it was bounded by the Sewalic and Kumaon hills, and on the south by the dominions of Oude. The principal rivers are the Ganges and Ramgunga; the latter traversing Rohilcund in nearly its whole extent, and uniting with the Ganges near Kanoje. The Goggra or Sarjew passes the north-east corner, and there are besides many rivers issuing from the northern mountains, and contributing to its fertility, being distributed by means of canals and reservoirs; water is also found by digging a few feet underground. Throughout its whole extent the surface is flat, being part of the great plain reaching from the northern hills to the sea, through which flow the Ganges and its innumerable tributary streams. Three rivers, having their sources among the hills, intersect Khyraghur—the Sarda, the Kumal, and the Couriallah, in all of which gold is found, mixed with sand, and is collected by a particular caste of people. The toddy (tari) and date palms are common here, while walnuts, strawberries, grapes, apples, and pears also thrive. The hot winds are not much felt, and, on the whole, this is one of the most favoured districts in Upper Hindostan. The bread at Bareily, the modern capital, is particularly good, and is said to be made from English wheat, originally brought from England by Mr. Hawkins, and now very commonly cultivated.

In the early periods of the Mogul empire Rohilcund was a very flourishing country, and of great political importance. It then contained the cities of Shahabad, Shahjehanabad, Bareily, Besowly, Budayoon, Owlah, Moradabad, and Sumbhul, which last communicated its name to a great part of the district. During the reign of the Patan dynasty in

Hindostan many princes of the royal family held their courts for a series of years in the city of Budayoon, where, as in many other parts of Rohilcund, are still to be seen the remains of magnificent edifices, palaces, gardens, mosques, and mausoleums.

The Rohillahs were originally a colony of the Yusefzei Afghan tribe, but their constitution had nothing of the apparent democracy of the Afghan hordes. The chiefs were lords of the soil, the other Afghans their tenants, and generally their soldiers. This people migrated from the province of Cabul in Afghanistan about the beginning of the eighteenth century, and then consisted of several independent tribes, who on pressing exigencies acted in concert, and were distinguished by the steady hatred that subsisted between them and the Maharattas. They are a courageous hardy race, and one of the few Mahomedan tribes who exercise the profession of agriculture as well as that of arms. They are also of a fairer complexion than almost any other race in Hindostan. Their high spirit and ferocious, uncultivated dispositions, render them difficult to govern or discipline, and, in common with the other Afghan races, they have the reputation of being crafty, treacherous, and sanguinary. In some European works the term Rohillah has been applied to the Afghans generally, but this is erroneous, as it is a Punjabee word, meaning a hilly country, and only known to the Afghans through the medium of books written in Hindostan.

About A.D. 1720 the Afghan chiefs Bisharut Khan and Daoud Khan, accompanied by a band of their needy and adventurous countrymen, came to Hindostan in quest of military service. They were entertained by Madhoo Sah, the zemindar of Serowly, who by plunder and predatory incursion maintained a large party of banditti. While plundering an adjacent village Daood Khan captured a youth of the Jaut tribe, whom he converted to the Mahomedan religion, named Ali Mahomed, and adopted to the prejudice of his own children. Daood Khan was succeeded as principal leader of the Rohillahs by Ali Mahomed, who, in consequence of the distracted state of Hindostan, soon established his power over the territory since named Rohilcund, although repeatedly brought to a low ebb by the Mogul armies from Delhi. Ali Mahomed died in 1748, and left six sons, but was succeeded in the chieftainship by Hafez Rehmut, whose authority, however, was constantly disputed by other leaders. In 1774 the combined forces of the Rohillahs were totally defeated by the British army at the battle of Cutterah, when Hafez Rehmet was slain, and with this event the Rohillah sway in Hindostan terminated, their country being transferred to the Oude government.

From this period may be dated the decline of the agriculture, commerce, and manufactures of Rohilcund (except in the jaghire of Rampoor, which remained under the management of Fyzoola Khan), and no where was the rapacity of the nabob of Oude's government exercised with such baneful success. Some little trade, however, continued to be carried on for eight or nine years after the conquest, chiefly under the protection and through the influence of the British troops stationed in the province. These having been withdrawn in 1782 and 1785, and the frontier left uncovered, a large body of Seiks crossed the Ganges at Tiggery ghaut, plundered Sumbhul and Chandowry, and some other towns, carrying off unmolested a considerable booty. This predatory incursion gave the *coup de grace* to the trade of Rohilcund, as thenceforward no man would venture his property in a country equally destitute of protection from arbitrary exactions within and plundering adventurers without.

The staple commercial articles in Rohilcund are cotton cloths and sugar, to which cotton as a raw material has been recently added. In remote times the cultivation of the sugar-cane was carried on to a great

extent, and a considerable amount of land revenue is still paid from its proceeds, the sugar of Rohilcund being reckoned of a superior quality. The natives of the hills bordering on the northern frontier, as also the inhabitants of Lahore, Cashmere, Cabul, and Candahar, take off considerable quantities. The articles of trade brought from the hills consist of borax, bees'-wax, musk, drugs of various kinds, cow-tails, copper, and iron; the returns are made in white cloths, tobacco, and sugar. Salt is mostly imported from the lake of Sambher in Ajmeer, the natives of Upper Hindostan being generally prejudiced against sea-salt.

The villages of Rohilcund are for the most part small; but various circumstances combine to render them more picturesque and pleasing than those of the more southern districts, Next to its numerous fertilizing streams, the leading features which distinguish the province are its frequent and graceful tufts of bamboos (a plant scarcely known in Oude or the Doab), and the magnificent groups of large trees, entirely free from underwood, which abound every where, and more especially in the neighbourhood of considerable hamlets. The tract bordering on the mountains for a breadth of from twenty to thirty miles is one vast forest, intermixed with long grass, the trees becoming more numerous and large, and the grass less luxuriant as the hills are approached. From Afzulghur to Khyraghur there are extensive forests, and a great number of labourers find employment in the wood trade. Bamboos, sissoo, saul, toon, and various other trees are in plenty; and from the bamboo is procured the banse lochun, which is much used by native doctors, and sometimes sells for nearly its weight in silver. Elephants are found mostly in the vicinity of Pillibeet, and a considerable number, but of inferior quality, are caught annually. The coss of Hindostan is reduced, in Rohilcund, to about one mile and a half British, and falls short of that measure in the tracts bordering on the hills, where the peasantry have no better estimate of space than what they call the "Gao coss," or the distance at which they can distinctly hear the low of a cow.

At present this valuable country is subdivided into the separate jurisdictions of Bareily, Moradabad, the residence of a joint magistrate subordinate to Bareily. From the trade carried on and the wealth accumulated in the small territory of Rampoor, prior to the death of Fyzoola Khan, some idea may be formed of the productive powers of Rohilcund; but a considerable proportion of the most industrious inhabitants had quitted it before it came under the British sway. For a long time also preceding that event a total stagnation of trade had prevailed, the trading capital having been dissipated or transferred to a more genial government. The Mahomedans of Rohilcund had long been accustomed to an idle and licentious military life, yet the example of the Rampoor jaghire proved that the habits of idleness prevailing among this class of people is not insurmountable, and that they may be brought to employ themselves both in manufactures and in the pursuits of agriculture.—(*Sir Henry Wellesley, C. Lloyd, Bishop Heber, Fullarton, Franklin, &c.*)

Rohur.—A seaport in the province of Cutch, about twelve miles E. by S. from the town of Anjar. The distance from Womania, on the opposite coast of the Gujerat peninsula, is thirty miles, and the passage is generally performed in two tides. The depth of water is seldom more than four feet, the vessels are consequently small; but the port of Rohur, on the west side, is capable of receiving vessels of 200 candies. The want of fresh water for more than two miles from hence will always tend greatly to check its prosperity. Many attempts have been made to secure a supply; but they have always failed, on account of the saline impregnation of the soil. In 1817 an endeavour

to remedy this deficiency was made by the Bombay government's ordering the construction of a tank, capable of holding a twelve-month's supply.—(*Macmurdo, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Rol.—A village and pergunnah in Chuara, one of the larger divisions of Bussaher, in Northern Hindostan. It stands 9,350 feet above the level of the sea, and is the highest inhabited land in this quarter without the Himalaya.

Rolpah.—A town in Northern Hindostan, subject to Nepaul, forty-five miles S.E. from Jemlah; lat 28° 45′ N., lon. 81° 47′ E.

Roma Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about forty miles in circumference; lat. 7° 35′ N., lon. 127° 20′ E. The chiefs of Roma are subject to the authority of the Dutch resident at Coopang, on the island of Timor. The principal commodities procurable here are wax, sandal-wood, and edible birds'-nests. Until prohibited by the British government slaves were also exported.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

Rooderpoor (*Rudrapura*). — A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, situated on the south side of the Goula nullah, which separates it from the small town of Rampoor near the skirts of the great forest under the northern hills, and forty-one miles N. from the city of Bareily; lat. 28° 58′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Roonay.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Birboom, about four miles and a half from Deoghur, and 112 W. by N. from Moorshedabad.

Roond.—A small town in the province of Gujerat, four miles from Chandode, situated on the east bank of the Nerbudda river, which is here high and steep, and opposite to a small island. In 1820 it belonged to the Guicowar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Rooroo.—A town in the province of Agra, twenty-eight miles west from Etaweh; lat. 26° 16′ N, lon. 79° 20′ E.

Ropoor. — A town in the Delhi province, twenty-six miles N. by E. from Sirhind; lat. 30° 55′ N., lon. 76° 33′ E.

Rotuk.—A town in the province of Delhi, forty-seven miles west from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 40′ N., lon. 76° 20′ E. This was once a considerable place, but is now mostly in ruins. On the east is a large brick fort, but the walls so feeble, that they could not sustain the fire of a six-pounder.

Rotti Isle.—An island in the Indian Ocean, situated at the south-western extremity of Timor; lat. 10° 50′ N., lon. 123° 50′ E. It is the largest under the Dutch residency at Coupang, being about sixty miles long by thirty-eight broad.

The surface of Rotti consists of a succession of low hills and narrow vallies, the soil stony, yet productive; the rivers small, and few in number, and the supply of water generally scanty. Rice in small quantities, with Indian corn, millet, and cachang, are the principal articles of agricultural produce; but in dry seasons the natives depend on the sugar of the lentar palm. A little cotton is raised; but a great proportion of what is used comes from Bontan. Money is unknown, trade being carried on by barter. Palm sugar is exchanged with the Bontan prows for cotton; horns and buffaloes with both the whalers and other ships for muskets and ammunition; bees'-wax with the Dutch for Indian, Chinese, and European articles. The teak-tree is not a native of this island, but woods adapted for prow-building abound. The animals are the same as on Timor. The houses of the natives are built on strong posts, raised several feet above the ground, and under them they bury their dead. Some of the chiefs or rajas profess Christianity, but the majority are pagans.

In 1820 this island consisted of eighteen communities, each under a

distinct raja, which combined could, it is said, bring 10,000 men into the field; and occasionally the Rotti chiefs assist the Dutch (whose supremacy they acknowledge) in their wars with the Timorese. The inhabitants are below middle stature, darker than the natives of Celebes, and noted for their long lank hair, a marked distinction from the Papuan race. Formerly many hundred slaves were annually exported from Rotti to Batavia, Amboyna, and other Dutch colonies; but latterly this trafic has declined, and along with it the wars instigated to procure the supply. A Dutch interpreter is usually stationed on this island, to whom the native rajas, in common times, yield obedience,—(*Malay Miscellanies, &c.*)

Rotas *(Rahatas)*.—An extensive but strong fort in the province of Lahore, 107 miles N.N.W. from the city of Lahore; lat. 33° N., lon. 73° 20′ E. It stands on a low hill, and belongs to the Seiks.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Roween *(Rowahin)*.—This is the upper division of Gurwal in Northern Hindostan, and chiefly subject to the Gurwal raja. After the conclusion of the campaign against the Gorkhas, in 1816, the disposal of this tract was reserved for future consideration, which ultimately terminated in a resolution to restore it to the raja of Gurwal or Serinagur. Independent of the general aversion felt by the British government to any increase of territory among the hills, it appeared that, with reference to the large deductions to be made from the ancient territory of the Gurwal principality, it would not be expedient to deprive it of the Roween district.

This country is wholly composed of granite mountains, but no volcanoes have ever been seen or heard of, nor any shells or animal remains found. The magnetic deviation is easterly, and exceedingly small, not averaging more than one degree. The diurnal changes of the barometer are just perceptible, the mercury always falling a little before noon. In June the climate about Reital is not unpleasant; nor is the price of grain, which is cut in that month, very high, although certainly not abundant. The exports from Roween to Bhote and Tibet are rice, mandwa, and papra (coarse grains), tobacco, and tamashas; the imports from them being salt, thick woollen cloth, and wool. The people of Roween are an ill-looking race both men and women, and extremely dirty in their persons. The women have not here, as more to the westward, a plurality of husbands. The inhabitants complain of being much infested by banditti from the west; but they themselves appear to merit a similar appellation, as they plunder their more eastern neighbours about Kedarnath. Their weapons are merely bows and arrows.—(*Captain Hodgson, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Rowzah.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the narrow tabular summit of a hill-pass 450 feet high, leading from Dowletabad to Elora, and about six miles and a half distant from the town of Dowletabad, with which it communicates by a well-paved causeway twenty feet wide. The caves of Elora are on the eastern front of the same ridge. Rowzah is still protected by a fine wall of masonry, and its interior presents extensive remains of stone buildings, but it is much gone to decay. The spot is of great natural beauty, and has been selected as a site for the shrines of several Mahomedan saints of high local celebrity, one of which still possesses some costly ornaments, and they are all still in good preservation. Close to that of Seid Zin ul Abdeen, and within the same enclosure, the remains of the great Aurengzebe are deposited in a plain marble tomb, covered with a sort of trelliced penthouse of wood, very miserable and decayed; and in the opposite angle of the area is the mausoleum of one of the emperor's sons. The air here

is very pure, and has a most salutary effect on convalescents, who travel here from Bombay to enjoy its influence; yet there is no difference between the temperatures of Rowzah and Aurungabad, which lies in a hollow, and is very unhealthy. The constant fresh breeze, the beauty of the scenery, and the sacredness of the neighbouring caves of Elora, all assist in dissipating the oppression of the patient's mind, and renovating his bodily energies.—(*Fullarton, Medical Transactions, &c.*)

Roy Bareilly.—A town in the province of Oude, situated on the north side of the Sye river, forty-six miles S.S.E. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 14′ N., lon. 81° 6′ E.

Ruanelli.—A valley in the island of Ceylon, twenty-six miles E.N.E. from Columbo, named by the Candians, to whom it formerly belonged, the valley of precious stones, and is probably the one alluded to by Sinbad the Sailor. Up to this place the river is navigable for boats, but from hence to Candy it is shallow and rocky. From hence to Columbo the distance by water is sixty miles; yet so rapid is the current, that the passage down is made in about eight hours, while in returning the same number of days are occupied. Since the British conquest, and more especially since 1815, great improvements have been effected at Ruanelli; bridges have been constructed on the road from Columbo and the vicinity, to a certain distance, cleared of jungle; comfortable habitations and convenient store-houses have been erected at the confluence of the Calani Gunga and another stream; and in 1819 a fort was nearly completed, and a bazar, containing from 200 to 300 families, established.

Rubcovee.—A small walled town in the province of Bejapoor, sixty-two miles travelling distance N.E. from Belgaum, and two miles S.W. of the Krishna. In 1820 it belonged to Chintamun Row, the Putwurdun of Sanglee, and carried on a considerable manufacture of cotton thread. Up to the above date it was not laid down in any map, the best of which were at that date very erroneous in the projection of this quarter of Hindostan, and more especially of the line of the Krishna.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Rudowra.—A town in the province of Delhi, eleven miles W. by N. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 2′ N., lon. 77° 9′ E.

Rudra Himalaya.—Part of a ridge of mountains in Northern Hindostan, which separates the Jahnevi and Ganges; lat. 30° 58′ N., lon. 79° 6′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea, 22,390 feet.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Rudrapoor.—A town in the province of Delhi, forty miles north of Bareily; lat. 28° 58′ N., lon. 79° 25′ E. The insalubrity of this vicinity has greatly increased within the last fifteen years. This was formerly a large and wealthy town, inhabited all the year through without danger or disease, but the soldiers and servants now (1824) die so fast, that it is scarcely possible to support the establishment of the police thana. This unfavourable change is attributed by the natives to the decay of the population, which certainly seems a preservative; possibly from the firres, breath, or society of men, which appear to neutralize the malaria.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Rudra Prayaga. — A Hindoo place of pilgrimage in Northern Hindostan, district of Gurwal, where the Alacananda joins the Caligunga, a large stream that rises in the mountains of Kedar, and in the Shastras is named the Mandakini. The confluence of these two rivers at this place is one of the five principal prayagas, or holy junctions, mentioned in the sacred books of the Hindoos. Lat. 30° 18′ N., lon. 78° 59′ E.; nineteen miles N.E. from Serinagur.

Ruengurra.—A town in the pro-

vince of Allahabad, seventy-five miles S. by W. from Callinjer; lat. 24° 2′ N., lon. 80° 25′ E.

RUGOLI.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, fifteen miles S.S.W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 45′ N., lon. 79° 29′ E.

RUIB ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, situated off the north-western extremity of Wageeoo, and surrounded by a multitude of smaller islands, with very deep waters between them; lat. 0° N., lon. 129° 55′ E.

RUMBAH.—A village in the Northern Circars, district of Ganjam, situated at the southern extremity of the Chilka lake, on a small bay formed by the projecting eminence, named the sugar-loaf hill on the right, with picturesque wooded mountains on all sides, and the expanse of the lake in front as far as Deer island. On the height above is a pleasant European villa.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RUMBO.—A petty state in the interior of the Malay peninsula, unconnected with the sea, its inhabitants being wholly agricultural. It lies between Pahang and Malacca to the east of the latter. The Rumbo people, who are poor and inoffensive, are said to be a more recent emigration from the parent stock in Sumatra than any other Malays in the peninsula. The chief of Rumbo is said still to acknowledge himself tributary to the Menancabow sultan, from whom he receives his investiture, and the peculiar dialect of the principality is by its neighbours called the Menancabow.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Raffles, &c.*)

RUMPAH.—A town in the Northern Circars, district of Rajamundry, situated towards the western frontier. The country of Rumpah forms a part of the British territory; but whether from its mountainous and unhealthy situation, or its unprofitable nature, the ancestors of the present raja have been in possession of Rumpah and villages adjacent, without rendering an account to any superior for many years. During the life of Pundoo Dorah it was an asylum for every description of vagrant, besides which the chiefs have always practised the custom of levying duties on goods transported by the river Godavery. For those and other crimes they had been expelled; but in 1815 Ram Booputty (Bhupati), the nominal talookdar of Rumpah, having seized and put to death the above-named notorious freebooter, the Madras presidency, as a recompense for this exploit, ordered the estate to be restored, on condition that he would maintain such a police as would prevent its becoming in future a resort of plunderers, and that he would also abstain from levying any transit duties on the Godavery.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

RUNALLAH (*ranalaya, the place of battle*).—A town in the province of Candeish, eighty-two miles east from Surat; lat. 21° 18′ N., lon. 74° 27′ E.

RUNGAGORA.—A town in Assam, the capital of a tribe of Hindoos, worshippers of Vishnu, whose chief is called Burseapati, and resides at this place; lat. 27° 20′ N., lon. 95° E., a point nearly central. He maintained his independence against the Burmese and Singhphos, and adhered to the British interests during the Burmese war of 1824.

RUNGAPOOR (*Rangapura*).—A town in the province of Hyderabad, twenty miles north from Warangol; lat. 18° 11′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E.

RUNGARA.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, forty-eight miles north from Goa; lat. 16° 12′ N., lon. 74° 8′ E.

RUNGPOOR (*Rangapura*).—A district in the province of Bengal, of which it occupies the north-eastern extremity, and situated principally between the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. To the north it has Bootan; on the south the district of Mymunsingh and the Garrow mountains; to the

east Assam and the Garrows; and on the west Dinagepoor. Its extreme length, from the confines of Assam to the borders of Morung, is 185 miles, and its greatest breadth, which is from the limits of Rajshahy to the frontiers of Bootan, 116 miles. In 1809, according to Dr. Francis Buchanan, it contained 7,400 square miles.

The shape of this district is so irregular as to bid defiance to description, but the main feature of its eccentricity is the deep sweep that the Cooch Bahar principality takes between its north-western and south-eastern extremes, which can scarcely be exceeded in perplexity. The course of the Caratoya was made the general line of boundary between Rungpoor and Dinagepoor, and probably the channel then followed by the river was as good a common boundary as could have been selected; but the limits of the two districts were far from being clearly defined by this arrangement, for the Caratoya is liable to change according to the channel by which the main rush of the Teesta (which notwithstanding its name, 'the still,' is never at rest) enters. In the present instance its course has varied very considerably since it was adopted for the common boundary, and the frontier villages have in consequence become intermixed. Besides these Rungpoor labours under other local disadvantages in the vast extent of its frontier, exposed to no less than five independent states, Nepaul, Bootan, Cooch Bahar, Assam, and the Garrows, from which it is separated, not by large rivers, lofty mountains, or any other natural landmarks, but by boundaries, for the most part merely imaginary, and, as might be expected from such ill-defined limits, the possession of the frontier tracts is every where contested.

Since the survey of Major Rennell the Rungpoor rivers have undergone such changes, that there is great difficulty in tracing them. Their banks are in general low, and the inundation so far from raising the ground by a deposition of sediment, seems gradually to be sinking the rivers deeper and deeper below the level of the plains. The principal rivers are the Brahmaputra, Teesta, Mahananda, Caratoya, Manas, and Chonkosh.

In Rungpoor there are several jeels, and in the north-eastern extremity, five miles from Jughigopa, a beautiful cluster of lakes, which in the wet season are overwhelmed by the Brahmaputra. The heats of the spring are not so scorching and parching as towards the western quarter of the Bengal province, the hot winds being rarely experienced for more than eight or ten days to the west, and in the east are scarcely known. The soil differs considerably from that of Dinagepoor, to which it is generally inferior. Towards the east there is much free red soil called ranga mati, which produces stately forests, much encumbered with enormous climbing plants, and by an undergrowth of weeds. Tanks are rare, the district not containing one of any considerable magnitude. To the east of the rivers Brahmaputra and Chonkosh the country is hilly, the ranges of hills seldom exceeding eight miles in length, by two in breath, nor (excluding the Garrow mountains) more than 1,200 feet in height. These ranges form no continued chain, being every where surrounded by low level lands, and during the rainy season almost insulated. Shells in large quantities are burned into lime, as well for the use of the indigo factories as for chewing with betel.

Bamboos are in such plenty that 100 are sold for a rupee, and at Goalpara, although so remote from the sea-coast (250 miles), the cocoa-nut palms not only ripen their fruit, but yield it in abundance. Wheat is a considerable crop, but except at the capital, in some of the principal families, the people not having the art of converting it into flour, boil it like rice. Barley is little cultivated, and maize almost unknown. The quantity of cotton cultivated is insignificant, nor is the sugar-cane

raised in any considerable quantity. Ginger has of late years been much grown, and has proved a profitable article to the peasantry in consequence of the increased demand for the Calcutta market. The grand staple of the district is tobacco, and the betel-leaf required for internal consumption is enormous. The poppy was formerly cultivated on government account, and the illicit culture through the connivance of the native officers still continues. The indigo weed is also raised, but on account of the great moisture of country it is difficult to preserve the seed in a good vegetating condition. Three species of profitable insects are reared by the farmers; the mulberry and resinous silk-worms, and the lack insect. All the implements necessary for a farm of one plough may be purchased for 7s.; the cost of a sugar-mill is 12s. 4d., and the total expense of working it about three guineas. Elephants are numerous throughout the three eastern divisions, and wherever there are extensive forests and thickets the rhinoceros is not uncommon, and is quite harmless, injuring neither persons nor crops. The other remarkable animals are apes, monkeys, black bears, and huge tigers.

It is only during the dry season that fish are plenty in the market, for during the floods they are scarce, and the middling ranks are ill supplied. The lower classes are not able to purchase at any season, but it is during the floods that they procure their principal supply. At that season every rice field swarms with small miserable fish, which are caught in baskets, and what is not immediately used is preserved by the following process. The natives remove the head, fins, entrails, and back-bone, dry the remainder by exposure on mats to the hot rays of the sun, after which they beat them up with some herbs, a little tumeric, and some potash. The mass is then formed into balls, which are dried in the sun, and will keep until next season. These fish are observed to abound in the fields so early as the end of June, which tends to confirm the opinion of their proceeding from eggs, which were left dry the preceding season, and hatched by the first rains.

In this district there is a fine road, attributed to Nilambor Raja. It passes from Komotapoor to Ghoraghaut, sends off several branches, and proceeds through several divisions of the district. Where the country is too low it is raised to a considerable height, and is a broad, grand work; but as it consists entirely of earth, without any hard materials, it would not long resist the action of many wheeled carriages: to this cause of destruction, however, it has never been exposed. In this district there are the ruins of several ancient cities, such as Komotapoor and the city of Prithi Raj, in the division of Sanyasicotta, the latter of which is less known. It consists of four concentric enclosures, which appear to have been all fortified. The inner is a parallelogram, 690 yards from north to south, by half as much from east to west; the length of the outer fort is no less than six miles from north to south. About two miles from the great bend of the Teesta, a little below Dimla, are the remains of a fortified city, said to have been built by Dharma Pal. The ruins of the fortifications are still extant, but their extent is not great.

The great farmers in Rungpoor are mostly Brahmins, Kayasthas, and Mahomedans of some rank; and the leases may be said to be in perpetuity, or perhaps rather that the occupants of the soil are the real proprietors, bound to pay a certain tax to government through the zemindar. In 1809 the landlords appeared to have no confidence in the promises of government, and considered the perpetual settlement of the land revenue as of no value, for they could not believe it possible that the supreme authority should know of their receiving large sums of money, without immediately demanding a share. The

manners of this class are in general very indifferent. Few, especially of the older families, ever visit each other, but live surrounded with dependents and flatterers, especially mendicant vagrants, who entertain them with marvellous stories. A great proportion of these miscreants is composed of men who pretend to have devoted their lives to religion, poverty, and abstinence. Some families pretend to be of divine origin; others are descended from princes who have governed the country; but a great majority of those who possess the most valuable lands are new men, who have purchased their estates at auction, among which number in 1809 were the descendants of Canta Baboo, Mr. Hastings' dewan. The estates of the Boruya contain 470 square miles, yet pay a land assessment of only 3,000 rupees per annum.

A few Brahmins here have acquired sufficient skill in astronomy to construct an almanac; and five or six pundits instruct youth in a science named agom, or magic, comprehending astrology and chiromancy, a study which at one time is said to have greatly flourished in Camroop. The generality are totally ignorant of any science, and to these the lower classes are abandoned, while the higher receive the decrees of fate from the Brahmins. Chiromancy is reckoned a higher science than the calculation of nativities, and is monopolized by the sacred order. The Mahomedans having no wise men of their own, consult those of the Hindoos.

The era followed in this district on all solemn occasions is that of Sacaditya, or Saca, of which the first year corresponds with part of our years A.D. 77 and 78. This appears to be the same era as what in the south of India is named Salivahana, but the natives here differ very much from those of the south concerning the great personages who distinguished those remote times. According to the learned Brahmins of Rungpoor, the era of Salivahana is called Sumbut, and commences 134 years before that of Saca, so that it evidently is the same with what in the south is called the era of Vicrama, who according to tradition there governed 144 years, and was destroyed by Salivahana. In this district, on the contrary, it is alleged that the era of Salivahana or Sumbut continued 134 years, and was then supplanted by that named after a prince called Sacaditya, who was killed by Vicrama. As yet, time in this district is measured by clepsydras or water-clocks.

All ranks in this district spin cotton thread, but a considerable proportion of the raw material is imported from the west of India by the way of Bogwangola and Moorshedabad. The Company purchase most of the best sugar, the remainder is consumed on the spot. The natives have commenced the manufacture of sugar after the European fashion, and in 1809 had sixteen factories. The grain goes mostly to Serajegunge and Narraingunge, to which places salt is also sent; opium is a contraband trade. The lac comes from Assam, and wax mostly from the Nepaulese territories and Assam. A considerable quantity of salt, after being miserably adulterated, is exported to Assam, Bootan, and the Garrow country. The raw silk is mostly exported by the Company. English woollens are imported chiefly for the Bootan market, but the demand is very inconsiderable; a little is also sent to Assam. The common currency is the Kuldar rupee of Calcutta, and cowries, there being very little gold coin and no copper. In the eastern divisions napkins worth about threepence, and portions of salt, are also used for the purposes of exchange. There are here many old roads attributed to Nilambar Raja, now become ruinous, and destitute of bridges, which, even of brick, cannot in this climate be expected to last more than twenty years.

The total population of the Rungpoor district in 1809, after a laborious investigation, was estimated by Dr. Francis Buchanan as follows:

Number of Mahomedans...	1,536,000
Ditto of Hindoos	1,194,350
Ditto of Asurics or infidels	4,650
Total ...	2,735,000
And in the following proportions, *viz.*	
Persons who do not work	343,000
Artificers.....	326,000
Cultivators	2,066,000
Total ...	2,735,000

Including the whole district, the above estimate will give 370 to the square mile; but if it be divided into two portions, separated by the Chonkosh and Brahmaputra rivers, the eastern division will contain at the rate of nearly sixty persons to the square mile, while the western in the same extent will contain 570. The grand check to population in this district is disease, the natives being exceedingly unhealthy, and the children feeble, so that a large proportion of the infants die, even of those not in a state of indigence; and although for almost fifty years food has never been so scarce as to approach to a famine, a large extent of excellent land still remains unoccupied. The forest of Parbut Joyaur contains 360 square miles, yet this large space is occupied by only 500 persons, and only 500 rupees of revenue is received from the proprietor. Among the domestics are both male and female slaves, especially towards Assam, and every where along the northern frontier. The people of Assam sell many slaves, and those of Cooch Bahar are not unwilling to carry on the same trade. Rungpoor being a section of Camroop (the Hindoo region of sensual love), public prostitution is so common, that in 1809 twelve hundred houses were occupied by females of that profession, which has assumed the organization of a regular society, with a priesthood adapted to their manner of life. In 295 of these houses, there were found to be 460 females, between the ages of twelve and twenty-five years; 218 advanced in life, who acted as servants and superintendants; and the community also contained thirty-nine old men, thirty-five youths, and fourteen boys, all born of the sisterhood. These prostitutes, although mostly born of Mahomedan parents, affect Hindoo manners, on which account they abstain from all impure food, and before the age of puberty undergo the ceremony of marriage with a plantain tree.

In this district, in 1809 there were seventy-eight sets of female dancers and singers, all prostitutes. Here they are called Nutti, and belong to the same kind of institution as the common prostitutes, and have the same religious guides. All the girls are purchased when children; the handsomest and smartest is generally the head of the set, which usually consists of two or three girls and four or five men, who are mostly born in the caste. There are no dancing and singing boys except such as are attached to the sets, which perform in honour of the gods and saints, but of these there is a considerable variety and incredible number. The number employed to make a noise on public occasions is stated in statistical tables of the Rungpoor district at 2,664.

In Rungpoor it is considered highly improper to bestow any education on women, and no man would marry a girl who was known to be capable of reading; but as girls of rank are usually married about eight years of age, and continue to live with their families for four or five years afterwards, the husbands are sometimes deceived, and find after marriage on receiving their wives, that they have learned the dreadful science, which is supposed to be most inauspicious to their spouses. Although this female erudition scarcely ever proceeds further than being able to indite a letter and to examine an account, yet it has proved the salvation of many families, and rescued them from impending destruction. The women of rank here live much less dissipated lives than the men, retain

their faculties more entire, and are generally much better fitted for the management of their estates, on which account they are considered intolerable nuisances by the harpies who prey on their husbands and plunder their estates. Education generally is in a very low state in this district, on which account almost every person employed in any high department of the revenue or police is a stranger. Few indeed born in the district are qualified even for the occupation of a common clerk or writer. Some of the strangers bring their families to reside, but by far the greater number leave their families in their native province, and consider themselves as undergoing a species of banishment.

The small farmers here are the most timid creatures imaginable, being totally illiterate, and afraid to speak even to a common village clerk. Five or six families commonly unite under a chief man, who settles the whole of their transactions with their landlord, and submit entirely to his guidance. These poor farmers are called Chenggons, and go nearly naked. The head man seldom does any work, and on all occasions is first helped to betel and tobacco. When any accident happens to this man, the whole community disperses, in order to find out some other person that will take them into his herd. Few even of these head-men can find courage to speak to his landlord, and still less to the European officers of government, and many of the landlords cannot muster sufficient intrepidity to face so high a presence.

In this district the Bedé are a tribe of the utmost impurity; neither is it certain to what country they belong. These Bedés live by gelding animals, making drums, catching snakes, performing juggling tricks, and by begging, enlivened by theft. Of this miserable race there are reckoned to be 460 families, who eat beef, carrion, pork, and all abominable things. Their marriages are accompanied by a feast, but no person officiates as priest. They are allowed one wife, whom they never divorce. No person is expelled from the caste, every delinquency being expiated by an entertainment. The chief object of their worship is a male deity named Masan, to whom the blood of sacrifices is grateful. As this deity seems peculiar to Camroop, it might be inferred that the Bedé are an aboriginal tribe, but they are known to be spread over many parts of Bengal.

At the date above-mentioned Dr. Francis Buchanan estimated the Mahomedans in the proportion of ten to nine Hindoos, and the faith of the former, owing to the number of converts expelled from the original castes, appeared to be daily gaining ground. The two religions, however, are on the most friendly terms, and mutually apply to the deities or saints of the other, when they imagine that application to their own will prove ineffectual. A great majority of the inhabitants do not appear to be intruders, but descendants from the original natives. The whole number of Brahmins in 1809 was estimated at about 6,000 families, or one-forty-third of the whole Hindoo population. The number of people upon whom no sort of impression has been made by the Brahmins is very inconsiderable, and are included under the general name of Asuric, strictly signifying persons who have no god; that is to say, who worship God in a manner different from the Hindoos and Mahomedans. The most prevalent sect among the Brahmins, is that of the Sacta, the followers of which rejecting the Puranas, adopt as their chief guides the books called Tantras, which it is understood were composed by the god Siva for the instruction of his wife Parvati.

Under the Mogul government, Rungpoor was a military frontier station towards the Morung and Cooch Bahar, and was partially wrested from the raja of the latter principality during the reign of Shah Jehan, when it was formed into a circar; but it was completely conquered by the generals of Aurengzebe in 1660-1, when it received the name of Fakercoondy. It devolved to the British

government along with the rest of the province in 1765, since which its condition has been gradually improving. In 1814 the annual revenues of Rungpoor amounted to 10,62,115 rupees; Cooch Bahar 62,722 rupees. In 1801 the lands paying revenue to government were considered by the collector as better cultivated than those that were rent-free. At present the principal towns are Rungpoor, Mungulhaut, Chilmary and Goalpara, where, as in the district generally, the most opulent merchants and landholders have no better habitations than the huts constructed of straw mats, precisely of the same form and appearance as those of the lowest peasantry, but in greater number and larger dimensions.

The prevalence of gang robbery in 1813 in the police division of Boda, was attributed by the superintendant of the police to the agency of a body of Keechuks (a sort of gypsey wanderers, natives of Bootan), who had been sent from Nuddea to Rungpoor, to be marched over the frontier to their own country. These banditti were first apprehended in the Sunderbunds, where they were found possessed of a large quantity of property, and of many implements of a suspicious description. The total number, comprehending men, women and children, amounted to between two and three hundred persons, without any visible mode of obtaining an honest livelihood; and as they had been wandering for many months through the British provinces, it was deemed eligible, with a view to the security of the community, to have them conducted to their own reputed country: they were in consequence sent into Bootan, from whence they were supposed to have made incursions into Rungpoor, where having committed depredations, they retreated with their plunder beyond the frontier; but in 1813 the magistrate succeeded in capturing a number of them. In 1814 this functionary expressed his opinion, that the murders committed on the other frontier by the Garrows, were solely occasioned by their desire to obtain human skulls; but further investigation proved that this was not the only cause of these enormities, which had commenced immediately after the sale of the Cutrybarry pergunnah in 1809, subsequent to which the ejected proprietor had resided among the Garrow mountains.—(*F. Buchanan, Sisson, J. Grant, Fullarton, &c.*)

RUNGPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, of which it is the capital; lat. 25° 43′ N., lon. 89° 22′ E. It may be considered as composed of four distinct villages, much scattered and separated even from each other; it being only near the police office where there is any appearance of a town. In 1809 the dwelling houses were said to be 3,000; the number of distinct roofs or buildings 10,000, and the population from 15,000 to 20,000.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

RUNGPOOR (*Rangapura*).—A town in the kingdom of Assam, of which it is said (for a time) to have been the capital, situated on the Dikho river, which flows into the south side of the Brahmaputra; lat. 26° 55′ N., lon. 94° 30′ E. In 1808 the royal palace (according to native accounts) was surrounded by a wall of brick three cubits thick, and three and a half cubits high. The house in which the throne stood was thatched, and supported by sauí beams, with sides constructed of bamboo mats. In the same enclosure was a building of brick in which the raja sat to view public exhibitions. There was also a small temple entirely composed of copper, in which it is supposed the god Chung was kept, but the whole worship of this deity is still involved in mystery.

When captured by the British in 1825 it was found to be a place of great extent, surrounded by a ditch, deep swamps, and jungle. On the walls and gates there were 200 pieces of artillery of various sizes, and it contained several mosques and other religious buildings. Owing to adverse circumstances a boat from Dacca ascending the Brahmaputra against the

current, requires fully as great a length of time to reach Ruugpoor as a ship does to make the voyage from Europe to Bengal. — (*F. Buchanan, Public Journals, &c.*)

Runjengaum.—A walled village in the province of Aurungabad, district of Ahmednuggur, about eighteen miles S.W. from the city of Ahmednuggur. There is here an excellent bungalow for the accommodation of travellers between Seroor and the last-mentioned station.

The Runn *(from erun, a morass, backwater, or waste, also a field of battle).*—An extensive salt morass which bounds the western frontier of the Gujerat province, communicates with the gulf of Cutch, and sweeps round the northern side of that province, which during the rains it insulates, and at other times exhibits a great variety of appearances. In some parts it is a widely expanded sheet of shallow water, only a few inches deep, in others an impassable salt swamp, elsewhere a dry unproductive bank of sand, in some places covered for miles with a salt incrustation, and in others affording pasturage and susceptible of cultivation; but every where strongly impregnated with saline particles adverse to vegetation. The total superfices of this immense morass may be estimated at 8,000 square miles, and the gulf of Cutch, which it joins, is in many parts so shallow as more to resemble a marshy fen than an arm of the sea. In its greatest extent the Runn is connected with the gulf of Cutch on the west, and that of Cambay on the east, which being united during the rainy monsoon, transform the Gujerat peninsula for a time to an island.

The Runn or Bunnee, from west to east, stretches from Luckput Bunder to the frontiers of Gujerat, and varies in its breadth from five to eighty miles across, but from the commencement to the breaking up of the rains is nearly impassable even for horsemen. It is said to be formed by the overflow of the Puddar river and the gulf of Cutch during the monsoon; but in December between Mallia and Anjar it is quite dry, and in most parts hard. Seen from the Cattywar coast, the Runn presents a singularly wild appearance, bounded in the extreme horizon by the hills of Wagur, having the appearance of an arm of the sea, from which, owing to some convulsion, the ocean had receded, or the dry bed of an immense river. It is throughout a dead flat, and in most parts, more especially near Mallia, totally devoid of verdure and vegetation. In this quarter, as far as the eye can reach, a mixture of earthy sand, covered with a thin lamina of earthy mud, presents a dreary view. In different places small insulated quicksands are seen, having in the middle a saline streak and incrustation of about 100 yards in extent, and for a considerable distance on both sides, the surface is strewed with thousands of prawns, mullets, and other fish. Tracts of large birds are also seen, and on the Cutch side apes and porcupines.

On approaching the opposite side, the salt incrustation is so thick as to have the appearance of snow; in other quarters it is said to extend the whole way across at particular seasons, presenting many singular optical deceptions, from the reflection and refraction of the sun's rays. The little saline shrubs and bushes are magnified to the size of lofty forest trees, waving, separating, and uniting again; armies seem to march over the flat; castles and fortifications rise, disappear, and reappear in the salt-bed of the morass. Under the crust the ground is in some parts soft and moist, in others dry and firm. The distance across the Runn, where the detachment marched in 1818, was exactly ten miles and a quarter from shore to shore; the dragoons reached the opposite bank in two hours and three quarters, and the European infantry in three hours and a half; the nullahs or water-courses leading into the Runn have quicksands in their beds, which are also impregnated with salt, so that fresh water cannot be had on the Cutch

side except at a considerable distance from the bank. The Runn was crossed on the north by the embassy returning from Sinde in 1809, where its extreme width was probably about sixty miles, but the tract was in few parts an absolute morass; on the contrary, many parts exhibited both pasturage and a scanty cultivation; but every thing in this quarter has a tendency to the saline.

The banks of the Runn are much frequented by that curious animal the wild ass, which is seen in herds of sixty and seventy at a time. This ass is larger than the tame one, the body of an ash colour, changing to a dirty white under the belly, and is, upon the whole, a larger and stronger animal than when domesticated. It is extremely vigilant and difficult to catch. It feeds on the Runn banks, and on the salt islands in its centre, where it browses on the stunted and brackish vegetation of the desert. In November and December it advances into the country, and ravages the grain fields. This animal has been sometimes caught in pits, but has always proved fierce and untameable, biting and kicking in the most ferocious manner, accompanied by an angry snorting, which appears to be its only voice. Their flesh is esteemed good eating by the natives, who lie in wait for them at their drinking places.

The whole of the extensive space occupied by this immense morass appears at some remote period to have been covered with the waters of the ocean, which have since subsided, and are still insensibly draining off; yet by the natives it is said to be annually and visibly increasing on the west side, where it joins the gulf. According to a tradition still current, the voice of a man could at one time be heard from Cutch to Cattywar; and opposite to Joroia, now a seaport, there was formerly a footpath at low water; but the truth of this cannot be substantiated by any records now extant. During the great earthquake of 1819, the Runn was so much affected by an increase of water, that the province of Cutch became for a time again almost insulated, which from stone anchors there found appears to have been its original condition.

The British government have a share in the customs levied on the salt manufactured in the Runn, and collected at Junjoowara and Patree. The saltpans are constructed upwards of a mile in the Runn, and the workmen having for many years been exposed to the attacks of the Kosahs, were seldom (until 1820) able to produce a quantity sufficient to meet the demand. The dessye of Patree and thakoor of Junjoowara have also shares in these customs.—(*Public Journals, Col. Walker, Macmurdo, J. A. Dunlop, &c.*)

RUNNODE.—A town in the province of Malwa, seventy-five miles north from Seronge; lat. 25° 6′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E.

RUPER.—A town in the province of Delhi, belonging to the protected Seiks; lat. 30° 58′ N., lon. 76° 31′ E. The Sutuleje river here finally quits the mountains and enters the plains of Hindostan.

RUPNAGUR (*Rupa Nagara*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, fourteen miles north from the city of Ajmeer; lat. 26° 41′ N., lon. 74° 30′ E.

RUSSAULGHUR.—A fortress in the province of Bejapoor, district of Concan, thirty-four miles S.E. from Fort Victoria; lat. 17° 45′ N., lon. 73° 40′ E.

RUTLAM.—A large and well-built town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820, contained about 2,000 houses; lat. 23° 19′ N., lon. 75° 5′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea 1,577 feet. This place is the head of several pergunnahs belonging to the raja of Rutlam, which at the date above-mentioned yielded a revenue of 4,03,200 rupees, out of which a tribute of 84,000 rupees was paid to Sindia. In 1824 the revenues were expected to reach to five lacks and a half. Eight Rajpoot dependents hold

jaghires, of from 2,000 to 12,000 rupees annually, on feudal tenures; and the troops furnished by them compose the raja's military strength. Rutlam was either founded or greatly increased during the reign of Shah Jehan, when Ruttun Singh, a Rahtore Rajpoot, received it as a reward for military service.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RUTNAGHERRY *(ratna ghiri, the diamond mountain).*—A fortress in the province of Bajapoor, situated on a neck of land which shelters a small bay from the S.W. monsoon, 130 miles S. by E. from Bombay; lat. 17° 2′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E. Hemp and coffee, both of good qualities, are raised in the neighbourhood.

RUTTENGHERRY *(Ratna ghiri).*—A town in the Mysore province, fifty-four miles S.E. from Chitteldroog; lat. 13° 50′ N., lon. 77° 13′ E.

RUTTUNGUR *(Ratnaghar).* — A town in the province of Ajmeer, twenty-five miles E. by S. from the city of Odeypoor; lat. 24° 51′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E.

RUTTUNPOOR *(ratna pura, the gem city).*—A town in the province of Gundwana, division of Choteesghur, of which it is the capital; lat. 22° 21′ N., lon. 82° 25′ E.; eighty-five miles E.S.E. from Mundlah. In A.D. 1794 this was nothing more than an extensive straggling village of about 1,000 huts, many of which were then uninhabited. The surrounding country is remarkably productive and well cultivated, when contrasted with the rest of the desolate province to which it belongs. By the nearest travelling road, Ruttunpoor is 296 miles from Chunar. Its chief was formerly styled the raja of Choteesghur (thirty-six fortresses).

Near to the town is an idol made of blue granite, about nine feet in height, rubbed over with red paint and adorned with flowers. In the neighbourhood are a great many pools and tanks, and also a lake, the embankment of which is nearly two miles in length, and there are many ruins in the vicinity indicative of a superior state of society to what now exists. In A.D. 1760, after Mr. Law was made prisoner, a party of 120 French who had been under his command endeavoured to effect a retreat from Bahar into the Deccan. They halted and were entertained a few days by Bembajee, the Maharatta chief, but at the end of that time he put them all treacherously to death. Travelling distance from Calcutta by Chuta Nagpoor 493 miles; from Nagpoor 220; from Delhi 633; and from Poona 706 miles.—(*J. B. Blunt, Leckie, 1st Register, Rennell, &c.*)

RUTTUNPOOR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, fourteen miles E. from Broach; lat. 21° 24′ N., lon. 73° 26′ E.

RYACOTTA *(Raya Cotay).* — A town and fortress in the Salem and Barramahal district, ninety-two miles from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 28′ N., lon. 78° 6′ E. The town or pettah is no better than a large village, thinly peopled, and girt on all sides with jungle. The lower fort, nearly on a level with the pettah, has never been strong, and is now in a ruinous condition. In 1820, however, it was still occupied by a small garrison of invalids.

The first line of fortification on the rock above is within 250 feet of the summit, and the ascent is by a broad road winding round the mountain, and easily practicable on horse-back. The useless works have been suffered to decay, but they are preserved in high order at every accessible point, and mounted with artillery. The ascent to the upper rock is by steps. On a platform a little way above the first line of works are the barracks, magazines, ordnance sheds, and other principal buildings; the flagstaff is planted on the highest peak. There is a small cave temple excavated in the southern precipitous face of the Ryacotta rock, at a great height from its base, and of very difficult access. The air of Ryacotta, on account of its elevation, is so very tem-

perate, that even in the hot season the thermometer seldom rises above 82° of Fahrenheit, and cherry trees flourish on it remarkably well.—(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Ryaguddy *(Raya gadi)*.—A town in the Northern Circars, sixty miles N.W. from Cicacole; lat. 18° 55′ N., lon. 83° 25′ E.

Rydroog *(Raya durga)*.—A town in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, 170 miles N.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 14° 49′ N., lon. 77° 2′ E. The fortress of Rydroog occupies the summit of a stupenduous mass of granite rock, which rises to the height (as estimated by the eye) of 1,200 feet, and is connected by a lower ridge with a group of wild and naked mountains, bounding the plains of Chitteldroog to the north-east. The southern face of the rock is abrupt and inaccessible, and towards the west there is a triple line of works, and a lower fort at about 800 feet from the plain. Here are the remains of a palace built by the ancient rajas or poligars of Rydroog, and likewise Hindoo temples dedicated to Rama and Krishna; the gateway of one of them ornamented with obscene groups in stucco. The ascent is by a broad causeway constructed with great labour, and protected on the side of the precipice by a parapet wall, the whole much superior to the generality of the approaches to hill-forts in India. The town of Rydroog covers a considerable space, both within and without the pettah walls, and contains several other remarkable temples, more especially one dedicated to Krishna, which has a pillar in front for the display of lights at festivals, formed of one single block of granite about forty feet high.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Ryebaugh *(Rai bagh, the Ray's garden)*.—A district in the province of Bejapoor, occupying the Doab, or space included between the Krishna and Gutpurba river. This territory belongs partly to the raja of Colapoor and partly to the British government, as successors to the Peshwa. The portion that adjoins the Western Ghauts is wild, mountainous, and in many parts covered with forest; the eastern portion naked, bleak, and barren. The hill-forts are numerous and formidable. The coss, which in the northern quarter of Bejapoor expresses nearly the same distance as in other parts of Hindostan, increases to about two miles and a half as the Krishna is approached from the north; and after passing that river and entering Ryebaugh, it enlarges to three miles and upwards. The principal towns are Ryebaugh, Sankassen, and Chickoory.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Ryebaugh.—The ancient capital of the preceding district, situated twenty-six miles S.S.E. from Merritch; lat. 16° 30′ N., lon. 75° E. It is surrounded by a bad wall, but in 1790 was not populous or extensive. Near the northern gate are some Mahomedan towns.—(*Moor, &c.*)

Ryeghur *(Raya Ghar)*.—A strong fortress in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the ghauts that bound the eastern frontier of the Concan, in a line between Poona and Fort Victoria, thirty-four miles S.W. from the first; lat. 18° 12′ N., lon. 73° 38′ E. This was one of the fortresses surrendered in 1817 by the Peshwa as a pledge of his sincerity, and which was afterwards restored. It was besieged on the rupture of 1818, and captured after a siege of fourteen days. Notwithstanding the stupendous height of the fortress, and the extensive area on its summit, the artillery practice on this occasion was so excellent, that shells showered into every quarter, and the palace set on fire, which quickened the enemy's determination to capitulate. When possession was taken, the Peshwa's wife, and public property to the value of five lacks of rupees, were discovered. Before this siege began, a passport was offered to her highness, but refused, and after the capture she was permitted to choose her own place of residence.

The palace of Sevajee and some religious buildings of contemporary date had long gone to decay, and even the tomb of the founder of the Maharatta empire was scarcely discernible. In Orme's history this fortress is invariably named Rairee, and he has much mistaken its geographical position.—(*Blacker, &c.*)

Ryepoor (*Raya pura*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, division of Choteesghur, of which it might rank as the chief town; lat. 21° 15′ N., lon. 82° 13′ E., 190 miles east from Nagpoor, and 1,747 feet above the level of the sea. In 1794 this place contained about 3,000 huts, and had a stone fort in the north-east side, the walls of which were much decayed, but the ditch deep and wide. The soil in the neighbourhood is a rich black mould, no where more than three feet in depth, under which is found the solid rock, as is perceptible in all the beds of rivers, and the sides of tanks and wells. At the above date the only road from Cuttack to Nagpoor passed through this town. In recent times supplies from Calcutta sent by the Mahanuddy river have been landed at Pungah on the Sew river, within twenty-six miles of Ryepoor, and afterwards brought up here by the Karoo river, which is navigable during the rains.—(*J. B. Blunt, Colonel Agnew, &c.*)

Ryeghur.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, usually dependent on the principality of Sumbhulpoor, and distant about fifty miles N.W. from the city of that name. In 1818 it was governed by Raja Joujar Singh, and was, compared with the rest of this miserable province, in a flourishing condition. In the alluvial soil, and in the banks of the rivers, gold, and sometimes diamonds, are found. The territory in general is also abundantly watered by various streams which flow through it from the hills, on their progress towards Cuttack and the valley of the Mahanuddy.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

Rynabad (*Ghainabad*).—A small village in the province of Bengal, district of Jessore, situated on the west side of the Boirub (Bhairava), eighty miles E. by N. from Calcutta; lat. 22° 42′ N., lon. 89° 44′ E. For many years after the British obtained possession of Bengal, rumours were current that extensive masses of magnificent ruins existed among the jungles of the Sunderbunds, and particularly in the vicinity of Rynabad; but, after repeated investigations, none have been discovered, nor is it probable that any very ancient ruins should be found in a territory which is itself of recent formation, and destitute of fresh water.

Rypoora.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-seven miles S.E. from Huttah; lat. 23° 53′ N., lon. 79° 55′ E.

S.

Sabrao Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, separated from Floris by the straits of Floris, and situated between the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at forty miles, by eighteen the average breadth. This island is inhabited by the same class of people as the aboriginal mountaineers of Soloo, who, so late as 1820, had the reputation of being cannibals, with the frizzled hair and dark colour of the Papuas. Some small barter of wax with the coasting prows, and stock with the whalers, takes place, but great precautions are necessary to guard against surprise and assassination. Of their religion, manners, and customs we have scarcely any information, but it does not appear that they ever acknowledged the supremacy of any external power, native or European.—(*Malay Miscellanies, &c.*)

Sacheen (*or Satragaum*).—A large estate in the province of Gujerat, pergunnah of Chourasse, granted in perpetuity by the Peshwa in

1791 to Siddee Abdul Kurreem Khan, commonly styled Balloo Meah, in exchange for the forts of Gingera, Dunda, Rajpoor, Causan, and Mudgur, with their dependencies situated in the Concan, which formed the hereditary principality of the Abyssinian family of the Siddees. The town of Sacheen stands in lat. 21° 4′ N., lon. 73° 5′ E., and some parts of the estate reach to within two miles of Surat.

This territory was entirely independent of the former Poona government, and is still so of the British, the civil and police authority being administered by the nabob, or by persons delegated by him. In 1816 a negociation was entered on by the Bombay presidency to induce him to allow the British functionaries to exercise police and criminal jurisdiction within his estate, but it failed of success. His income, when clear, amounts to about 75,000 rupees per annum, but it is usually greatly involved.—(*Prendergast, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SACHORE.—See SANJORE.

SACKER.—A town in the province of Gundwana, division of Gurramundlah, thirty-eight miles W.S.W. from Jubbulpoor; lat. 23° 4′ N., lon. 79° 25′ E.

SACKEY.—A small fort in the province of Bengal, situated on the banks of the Adji river at its confluence with the Bhagirathi, and immediately opposite to the town of Cutwa. This fort was taken by Colonel Clive a few days before the battle of Plassey. Its turf ramparts are still tolerably entire, and its internal buildings are occupied as government stores.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SACKUR.—A district belonging to the Nizam in the province of Bejapoor, situated between the sixteenth and seventeenth degrees of north latitude, and named by the Mahomedans Nusseritabad. It is comprehended within the angle formed near the junction of the rivers Krishna and Beema, and contains much fertile land, imperfectly cultivated and thinly peopled. The town of Sackur stands in lat. 16° 36′ N., lon. 76° 47′ E., sixty-five miles E. by S. from the city of Bejapoor.

SACUR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, belonging to the British government, situated on the south bank of the Nerbudda river. In 1820 it contained about 1,500 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SADRAS.—A town on the sea-coast of the Carnatic province, forty-two miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12°31′ N., lon. 80° 14′ E. There was formerly a small fort, surrounded by a brick wall fifteen feet high, which was seized by M. Lally during the siege of Madras, in violation of the Dutch neutrality. In the time of the Dutch, who frequented it so long ago as 1647, it was a populous place, where ginghams of a superior quality were manufactured. In 1795, in consequence of the rupture with the Dutch, possession was taken of Sadras, which was annexed to the district of Chingleput, but in March 1818 it was regularly delivered over to M. Van Braam, the commissioner deputed to receive charge of it by the King of the Netherlands. In 1820 the ruins of the fort, two or three Dutch houses, a decayed tavern, and a very poor native town to the westward, were all that remained of this once flourishing settlement.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SADREE.—A town in the province of Ajmeer belonging to the Pertaubghur Raja, fifty-six miles E.S.E. from Odeypoor; lat. 24° 25′ N., lon. 74° 30′ E., 1,782 feet above the level of the sea.

SADUNG.—A port in the island of Borneo, situated in lat. 2° 50′ N., lon. 111° 20′ E., from whence antimony is exported to Singapoor. It is said to be procured in large quantities from a mountain about one day's journey into the interior.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

SAEENAGHUR.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, fourteen

miles north from Belhary; lat. 23°59′ N., lon. 80° 18′ E.

Sagor Island *(Ganga sagara, the confluence of the Ganges with the ocean).*—An island belonging to the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Hooghly river. Authorities vary as to the limits within which Sagor island, properly so called, is comprehended; some considering it as including a very extensive tract, while others confine it to the south-western extremity of the Sunderbunds, the whole of which is intersected by creeks dividing it into separate islets. According to the survey made by Lieutenant Blane, by a series of triangles, in 1812, the island of Sagor extends from the northern entrance of Channel Creek to the sea, comprising the whole of the lands situated to the westward of Channel Creek. An official map of the island, drawn in 1811, makes it twenty miles in length, by five in general breadth. This station is not found so destructive to the crews of ships as those further up the Hooghly; and it is proved by experience, that the further down the river the less sickness prevails, Sagor being the healthiest anchorage on the coast. On account of the vast expansion of the river, ships having here the advantage of lying at a great distance from the shore, enjoy a refreshing circulation of sea air, and escape the deleterious exhalations from the mud-banks and putrid vegetation at Culpee and Diamond Harbour. Although the shores are bordered with trees and thick underwood, the interior in many spots is said to be merely covered with grass jungle, which in the dry season may be easily removed by fire.

Sagor Island is a celebrated place of pilgrimage among the Hindoos, on account of the great sanctity arising from its situation at the junction of the holiest branch of the Ganges with the ocean. Many sacrifices are in consequence here annually performed, of aged persons of both sexes, which are voluntary, and of children, which of course, are involuntary, the periods fixed for their celebration being the full moon in November and January. It does not appear that these sacrifices are sanctioned by any tenet in the Hindoo code; but according to Hindoo notions the vow itself has the force of a religious dogma, and is considered equally binding as a written law. In 1801 only a few Gossains (Hindoo devotees) resided on this dreary island, who levied contributions from the pilgrims and shopkeepers resorting to Sagor, deriving their title from a sage named Capila, who is said to have lived 2,000 years before the commencement of the Christian era. These pilgrims bathe where the Ganges and ocean unite, perform obsequies for their deceased ancestors, and worship in the temple of Capila, here reverenced as a god. This temple is under the alternate charge of a Bairaggi and a Sanyasi, the latter presiding at the assembly in the month of Kartik, and the former in Magh or January. They levy a tax of four annas on each person who visits the temple, the amount of which is divided among five different establishments of Ramanandi Bairaggies in the vicinity of Calcutta. When Mr. Ward visited the temple he found in the court a mendicant devotee of the class who always keep an arm raised above their heads (the urda bahu), and also another ascetic, by whom he was informed that at the close of the preceding festival five or six mendicants had taken up their abode within the same precincts, most of whom had been subsequently carried off by tigers.

In 1813 the attention of government being called to Sagor Island, it was ordered to be surveyed, when it was found to contain 429,806 begas of dry land. It was then advertized to be leased to natives (Europeans being excluded) for seven years free of all assessment, and many proposals were received from native speculators, but the scheme ultimately wholly failed, and the island was subsequently leased to an association composed of Europeans as well as natives, free of

rent for thirty years, and to pay only four annas per bega ever after. The undertaking was in consequence begun with the characteristic vigour of Europeans, but so many unforeseen difficulties occurred that up to the 1st September 1820 not more than four square miles had been effectually cleared. Amongst other obstacles it was found that as the woods were cut down the sea encroached, the sandy beach not having sufficient tenacity of itself to resist the invasion. Twenty-five families of Arracan Mughs were settled at the confluence of two creeks, and a road constructed for the accommodation of pilgrims to the temple of Capila. Considerable difficulty had been experienced from the want of fresh water, to obviate which shallow tanks for the reception of rain water were ordered to be dug; but this deficiency must always greatly impede the prosperity of the island. In 1820 a large portion of Sagor was under-leased to a European gentleman free of rent for twenty years, one-fourth to be cleared in five years, and the remainder in succession. Many other estates were also leased to other individuals, the whole to expire on the 1st October 1839, when the whole reverted to the above-named association. Could this measure be satisfactorily completed, a maritime city would soon start up sufficient for all the purposes of external commerce, and thereby prevent the necessity of so many Europeans proceeding up the river to Calcutta, from thence penetrating to the interior. If the ships could also at once receive their cargoes and be despatched from Sagor, the voyage would be greatly expedited, and the expense of port charges and insurance materially lessened.—(*Public MS. Documents, Police Reports, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

SAHARUNPOOR.—A large district in the province of Delhi, intersected by the thirtieth degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the chain of hills from which issue the Ganges and Jumna; to the south by the district of Merut, or South Saharunpoor; to the east it is separated from Moradabad by the Ganges, and on the west from the territories of the protected Seik chieftains by the Jumna. It 1807 it contained 5,900 square miles, or about 6,289,000 begas.

Although placed between two large rivers, the Ganges and the Jumna, which here run nearly parallel, at the distance of about fifty-five miles, this country is not subject (except the Cadda) to the periodical inundation that prevails in Bengal and the more south-eastern provinces. The surface of the country, however, is a continued flat to the base of the hills, which rise abruptly, marking the northern limits of the immense tracts through which the Ganges flows to the sea. The Cadda (an extensive tract of land adjoining the Ganges) is separated from the adjacent territory by a very abrupt descent of many feet, and where not brought under tillage is overgrown with high grass. The soil is fertile, and in general highly cultivated, producing sugar, wheat, cotton, indigo, and tobacco; the two first in such abundance and of so excellent a quality as to furnish one-fifth of the total revenue. Until the ravages it sustained during the turbulent reigns of Aurengzebe's successors, Saharunpoor was esteemed one of the richest divisions of the Mogul empire; but from that monarch's death in 1707, until its acquisition by the British in 1803, it scarcely had an interval of rest from external invasion or internal dissention. The depredations of the Seiks had been so incessant, that for many years after it devolved to the British almost every village continued surrounded by a wall and ditch, capable of resisting the attacks of plundering cavalry. At present the principal towns are Saharunpoor, the capital, Hurdwar, Ambeta, and Deobund. For the greater part of the year the climate is temperate, and in the winter even cold; but during the height of the summer the heat is intense and the country burned up.

The lion, which was long supposed

to be unknown in India, has been recently ascertained to exist in considerable numbers in this district and about Luddeanna. They have been also killed in the northern parts of Rohilcund and in the neighbourhood of Moradabad and Rampoor, as large, it is said, as the average of those in the neighbourhood of the Cape of Good Hope. Indeed, the continued incursions of the Seiks, before it came under the British, had brought the northern portion in the vicinity of Zabeta Khan's canal into a complete state of jungle and forest. The security, however, which it has enjoyed since their expulsion has influenced the zemindars again to bring their waste lands gradually into cultivation. But the absence of water forms a considerable obstable to the prosecution of agriculture on a considerable scale, the scarcity being such that a single well in some parts supplies the neighbouring villages for a circuit of several miles; and the soil is so loose and sandy, that the sinking of wells is at all times difficult and expensive, and their continuance precarious. This defect was formerly counteracted by the existence of the Doab, or Zabeta Khan's canal, the restoration of which having been undertaken by government, we may expect ere long to find the husbandman peaceably prosecuting his labours where lions now roar.

The country originally possessed by Nujib ud Dowlah, an Afghan chief, appointed prime minister to Shah Allum by Ahmed Abdalli of Cabul, comprehended the district of Saharunpoor, that of Sirhind, and some tracts of country round Delhi. He was succeeded by his son Zabeta Khan, who dying in 1785, was succeeded by the execrable Gholaum Caudir Khan, who in 1788 put out the eyes of the unfortunate emperor Shah Allum with a dagger, and tortured, starved to death, and massacred many of the royal family. A few months afterwards he was himself put to death, with torture, by Madhajee Sindia, who conquered and appropriated the greater part of his dominions.

In 1803 Saharunpoor, along with all the other Maharatta conquests in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumma, were acquired by the British government, which in 1804 separated it into two divisions, the northern and the southern, the last also named the district of Meerut. In 1815 the first, or Saharunpoor district, contained 1,879,998 pucka begas of land in cultivation, assessed at 25,79,817 rupees, which was realized, presenting a government rent of one rupee six annas per bega. The waste lands were then said to amount to 2,444,317 begas, and those cultivatable but neglected, to 2,124,705 begas. In this instance the standard of mensuration is the pucka, or large bega, equal to three cutcha, or small begas. In 1807 the population of the district was estimated at 703,000 persons, or 119 to the square mile.

Large tracts of waste land still remain in Saharunpoor, which if excluded from the operation of the permanent settlement, might at a future, though distant period, be made available to the revenue; and notwithstanding the substantial benefits that in ordinary cases arise from the permanency of the landed assessment, the principle may admit of exceptions, more especially in cases where the improvements have been effected, not by the exertions of individuals, but by the care and at the expense of the government. The exception will also apply where land in an actual state of cultivation bears but a very inconsiderable proportion to that in a state of nature. In all other contingencies the stability of the public revenue and its punctual collection tend greatly to the general amelioration of the country and of its inhabitants; and its influence is felt in many branches of the administration, with which, to a superficial view, they would not appear to have any connexion. An applicable case occurs in Saharunpoor, where it has long been in contemplation to re-open Zabeta Khan's

canal, which, previous to its extinction, must have fertilized an extent of country, including windings, of not less than 200 miles. Its channel runs from the base of the hills, through the whole upper half of the Doab to opposite Delhi, and in effecting its renewal a deep excavation is by no means necessary, for being intended to irrigate the land, its surface should be dug as little as possible below the general level of the plain. When completed, large tracts of land, now waste, will be rendered productive, when, of course, government would be justified in profiting from a source which had been created by its funds. —(*Public MS. Documents, Scott, Franklin, Deane, Marquis of Hastings, Fullarton, &c.*)

SAHARUNPOOR.—A town in the province of Delhi, the capital of the preceding district, ninety miles N. by E. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 57′ N., lon. 77° 32′ E. Elevation above the level of the sea, 1,013 feet. This is a large town, and many of the houses are built of brick, but it does not contain a single remarkable edifice. In the neighbourhood there is a monastery of Bairaggies, situated in a dense grove of trees, where a host of monkeys reside, and come down daily at a certain call to be fed. A small botanic garden (intended chiefly as an intermediate nursery for plants unable to bear the heats of Bengal) is maintained here at the charge of government. Saharunpoor was at one period a considerable military station, and when the Gorkhas were in force to the north, a fortress was erected; but all apprehension from that quarter having ceased, the regular military have been withdrawn, and the fort converted to a gaol. It is a quadrangular work of considerable extent and strength, having a double ditch, ramparts faced with brick, and protected by round bastions of earth at the angles and on each side of the gate, besides an outer wall, also constructed of earth.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SAHDREE.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Mewar; lat. 24° 28′ N., lon. 74° 30′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea 1,782 feet, being 189 feet below Little Sahdree. In 1820 it belonged to the raja of Pertaubghur.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SAHGUR.—A town and small district in the province of Allahabad, thirty-five miles S.E. from Teary; lat. 24° 18′ N., lon. 79° 6′ E.

SAIGONG.—A town in the Cochin Chinese empire, of which it is the chief commercial emporium; lat. 10° 47′ N., lon. 107° 5. E. It stands on a point formed by the confluence of two branches of the Donnai river, and in fact consists of two cities extending about six miles along the northern bank; one more recently built, called Bingeh, is situated above a mile from the other called Saigong. The first is contiguous to a citadel or fortress recently constructed on European principles, wet ditch, and rampart thirty feet high. In 1821 it was still unfinished, and without cannon; but for magnitude, strength, boldness of design, and perseverance of execution, a most extraordinary production for India beyond the Ganges. It is of a quadrangular form, and capable of mounting 800 cannon, each side being 1,187 toises in length, and it contains spacious barracks for the soldiers. The royal palace is in the centre of the city, and is an oblong building about one hundred feet by sixty, built principally of brick, and raised on a terrace about six feet high; but the town of Saigong has not been visited by the king or any of the royal family since the time of the civil wars.

The magazines for naval and military stores are six immense buildings of great extent, consisting of a mixture of brick and wood-work, with walls about eighteen feet high. The houses are principally of wood, roofed with palm-leaves, and one story high, but some few are of brick. The streets are regular and spacious, intersecting each other at right angles, and some of them paved with brick. The quays are of brick and

stone, and extend nearly a mile along the river. In 1819 the naval yard or arsenal contained 190 gallies, from forty to one hundred feet long, some of them armed with sixteen three-pounders. There were also two frigates of European construction, and abundance of good ship timber, with spars for masts and yards, and plenty of skilful ship carpenters. There was formerly a cannon-foundry here, but that at Hue is the only one now in operation.

The site of the Saigong citadel, a natural conical mound about sixty feet high, is the first elevated spot that occurs in the river from Cape St. James, the surrounding country being alluvial, and much intersected by creeks. The ship navigation of the Donnai river may be said to finish at Saigong, but small vessels and canoes may proceed much higher up. The passage from the sea to this city is often made in one tide, and usually in boats, managed by women, but many hundred of country craft are always seen lying before the town, which in 1819 was said to contain 180,000 inhabitants.—(*Lieutenant White, Finlayson, &c.*)

Saihur *(or Shehr)*.—A town and strong fortress in the province of Agra, belonging to the principality of Jeypoor, about sixty-eight miles travelling distance from the city of Jeypoor. This place is said to be dependent on Khooshalgur, a town situated to the south-west. The fort is of masonry, and presents a lofty and striking group of castellated buildings, covering the entire ridge of an isolated white rock rising from the midst of an extensive plain. Every accessible point below is protected by outworks, and the town or pettah, which extends to the north of the rock, contains some good houses, and a considerable population. It is encircled by a strong mud wall and wet ditch, and is covered on one side by a jeel or shallow lake. This is one of the few places in the Jeypoor territory which always resisted the attempts of Ameer Khan during his temporary occupation of the country. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Sailoor.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, thirty-five miles N.N.E. from the city of that name; lat. 20° 18′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E. It is now a miserable assemblage of mud huts, mostly gone to ruin, but the large open space within its mud walls indicates a former state of greater importance.

St. Barbe's Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, situated under the equinoctial line, lon. 107° 40′ E. In making this island from the N.W. it looks like two islands, the extremes being higher than the centre. It is about three leagues in circumference. There is anchorage where wood and water may be had on the south-east side, in twenty-five fathoms water.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

St. Bernardino *(Straits of)*.—These straits separate the islands of Luzon and Samar in the Philippines, and have a small island in the centre of the same name. The whole are much infested by the piratical prows, which plunder and enslave the inhabitants of the sea-coast.

St. James *(Cape of)*.—This cape forms the eastern entrance of the river Saigon, in Cochin China; lat. 10° 23′ N., lon. 106° 48′ E. It is the extremity of a ridge of hills about 300 feet high, which form a promontory on the left side of the mouth of the Saigon river, the opposite side being alluvial sand.—(*Finlayson, &c.*)

St. Julian Isle.—A very small island in the Eastern seas, about eighteen leagues distant from Victoire isle; lat. 0° 49′ N., lon. 106° 50′ E.

St. Matthew's Isles.—A cluster of very small islands situated about twenty-five leagues east from the island of Bootan, between the fifth and sixth degrees of south latitude and the 124th and 125th of east longitude.

St. Matthew's Isle.—One of the

Mergui Archipelago, which in 1825 appeared to be uninhabited. This island has a bold shore, little level ground, and is covered with a thick forest. The most prominent peak has been estimated at 3,000 feet in height.—(*Lieutenant Low, &c.*)

ST. PATRICK and ST. GEORGE.—Two of the united peaks in Northern Hindostan, situated at the head of the Bhagirathi or true Ganges; lat. 32° 52′ N., lon. 79° 7′ E. The first is 22,798 feet, the last 22,654 feet above the level of the sea.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

ST. PEDRO.—A small but handsome town in the province of Bejapoor, stretching along the shore under a rocky promontory, two miles west from old Goa, with which it is nearly joined by a straggling line of villas and religious edifices. Saint Pedro is the residence of the archbishop of Goa, and of several of the public functionaries.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

ST. THOMAS'S MOUNT. — The site of an extensive cantonment in the Carnatic, the head-quarters of the Madras artillery, eight miles S.S.W. from Madras. On the summit of the rock that rises immediately behind the cantonment, and gives the name to the spot, is an ancient Roman Catholic church, to which there is an easy ascent by steps. The whole hill belongs to the Portuguese ecclesiastical establishment of Saint Thomé, and at its base are a number of Christian tomb-stones, with inscriptions, some of so old a date as 1680. On another eminence near Madras, called the Little Mount, are the buildings of an old convent, near to which the road is carried across the Meliapoor river by a bridge of twenty-nine arches, called the Armenian bridge, 1,230 feet long, and a work both simple and solid.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

ST. THOME.—A town on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, named by the natives Mailapuram, or the city of peacocks; but Mr. Wilson thinks it ought to be Mihilaropya, an ancient city, and possibly the Meliarpha of Pliny; lat. 13° 2′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E., three miles south from Madras. It stands close to the sea, which here forms a kind of bay or small haven, and the adjacent plain abounds with coco-nut trees, which retain their verdure throughout the year. The inhabitants consist of Hindoos, Mahomedans, and Roman Catholic Christians; the latter a bastard race of a dark complexion, the progeny of Portuguese and natives.

When the Portuguese commander took the town of Meliapoor (Saint Thomé), he found a great many inhabitants who professed the Christian religion of the Nestorian or Chaldean persuasion. He changed the name of the place to Saint Thomé in honour of the apostle, which it still retains among Europeans. In A.D. 1672 a French fleet from Trincomalee, under the command of M. de la Haye, unexpectedly landed 300 men and some guns, and took St. Thomé by storm. They afterwards successfully resisted the numerous forces that the natives brought against them; but in 1674 were compelled to surrender to the Dutch, who gave it up to the king of Golconda. In 1749 this town was taken possession of by Admiral Boscawen, as he found the Roman Catholic inhabitants and priests conveyed intelligence to the French in Pondicherry. For many years St. Thomé belonged to the nabobs of Arcot; but after the death of Anwar ud Deen it seemed to belong to nobody, for there were no functionaries, either civil or military, acting with authority in the place. During the wars of the Carnatic it was occupied by the Madras government, and it has ever since remained subject to that government. It is still a considerable town, and full of Portuguese churches.—(*Orme, Ora. Paolo, H. Wilson, Bruce, &c.*)

SAIPOOR.—A town in the province of Gundwana, eighty miles south from Mirzapoor; lat. 24° 2′ N., lon. 82° 46′ E.

SAIREE.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-seven miles N.W. from Banda; lat. 25° 43′ N., lon. 79° 57′ E.

SAKAING *(in Ava)*. — See CHAGAING.

SALANGHUR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty miles south from Chitore; lat. 24° 14′ N., lon. 74° 47′ E.

SALATIGA.—A small town and fort in the island of Java, twenty-eight miles south from Samarang; lat. 7° 13′ S., lon. 110° 35′ E.

SALAWATTY ISLE. — One of the Papuan or Oriental negro isles, situated about the 131st degree of east longitude, and separated from the great island of Papua by a narrow strait. In length it may be estimated at thirty miles, by twenty-five the average breadth. This island produces a great deal of sago of an excellent quality.

In A.D. 1770 a fleet of Papuan boats sailed up the straits of Patientia, which separate Batchian from Gilolo, on a plundering expedition, but the Dutch took the raja of Salawatty prisoner, and banished him to the Cape of Good Hope.

SALAYR ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, lying off the southern extremity of Celebes, about the sixth degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at forty miles, by eight the average breadth. There are many smaller isles lying round and near Salayr, and belong to it, but only two are inhabited, Bonarautte and Calawe.

This island is mountainous and woody, yet better peopled and cultivated than most of the Eastern isles, the inhabitants also appearing to have attained a superior stage of civilization. The principal produce is millet, which is the chief subsistence of the natives, and cultivated advantageously, each field being fenced in. Cotton is raised in the same manner, from which coarse blue and white striped cloths are manufactured for internal consumption and exportation. The houses of the natives are good, and the richer classes in travelling are carried in bamboo chairs over the hills, horses being used only in the level country. By Capt. Forrest in 1775 the inhabitants were computed at 60,000 persons.

The Macassars, who had obtained possession of this island, made a cession of it to the king of Ternate, from whom it was wrested by the Dutch East-India Company. In 1775 Salayr was governed by fourteen native regents, who resorted once a year, in the month of October, to Fort Rotterdam in Celebes, to perform the customary duties of vassalage to the Dutch, on whose part a junior merchant resided on Salayr, in a palisadoed fort.—(*Stavorinus, Forrest, Capt. Hunter, &c.*)

SALEM *(including the Barramahal.)* —A district in the south of India, under the Madras presidency, situated above the ghauts, and comprehending within its jurisdiction the adjacent territory of the Barramahal. At the northern extremity it has the district of Cudapah; on the south Trichinopoly and Coimbatoor; to the east it is bounded by the Carnatic below the ghauts; and on the west by Mysore and the district of Coimbatoor.

The surface throughout is of great elevation, being placed on the summit of the table-land above the Eastern Ghauts. The Sherwahray hills are situated about six miles north of the town of Salem. The highest point, on which there is a pagoda, was found by barometrical observation to be 5,260 feet above the level of the sea. These hills consist of three separate naads or divisions, the Salem, the Mochos, and the Mootoo naads. The last is the loftiest, and almost a table-land, seven miles by three, and tolerably productive of wheat, barley, and millet. The inhabitants are exclusively of the caste named Vellalers, who, according to their own traditions, migrated from Conjeveram about 600 years ago. The climate of this region is not so

cold as that of the Neelgherry mountains, owing to the superior altitude of the latter; but still the temperature is sufficiently low to induce the visits of invalid Europeans with exhausted constitutions—a numerous class in India. The principal rivers are the Cavery, the Panaur, and the Palar, which penetrate through the mountains, and proceed through the lower Carnatic to the bay of Bengal. The principal towns are Salem, Namcul, Ahtoor, Caverypatam, and Kistnagherry.

The chief grains cultivated in Salem are Indian corn and rice; of the first, two crops are occasionally procured in one year from the same field, the earliest in April, the second in September. The cultivation of cotton is limited, in many parts it is not raised at all, and is always sown in a slovenly manner mixed with other seeds. In this district as well as in Chingleput there is abundance of waste land, the possession of which, there is reason to believe, has added little or nothing to the means of those persons who were induced to become purchasers of estates, nor in any degree diminished the evil consequences that have resulted from taking its supposed value into consideration, on assessing the land revenue permanently: for although twenty years have elapsed since that event, it does not appear that real wastes to any extent have been occupied during so long a period of time. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue was 5,19,453 pagodas, and in 1822 according to the returns made by the collectors under the Madras presidency, the total population amounted to 1,075,985 persons.

Salem *(or Chelam)*.—The original capital of the preceding district, situated in lat. 11°37′ N., lon. 78°13′ E., 114 miles S.E. from Seringapatam. Cotton goods were formerly purchased here for the East-India Company, and saltpetre may be procured at a moderate price. In the town are some handsome choultries.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

Salen.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, the chief place of the district in which Shembegewn is placed. This district in 1826 was reckoned the most productive in the Birman empire, and was in consequence monopolized by the queen's brother.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

Salengore *(Salangor)*.—A petty state (originally a Buggess colony from Celebes) in the Malay peninsula, extending along the straits of Malacca, and governed by a Mahomedan chief in 1822, named Sultan Ibrahim, descended from a Buggess, the founder of Salengore, and bearing the Hindoo title of raja. This territory is poorer and more thinly inhabited than that of Perak, but the inhabitants are more civilized, and speak a remarkably pure Malay. Only small vessels can enter the river, which is obstructed by a mud flat. Colong or Kalang is a new settlement, at which the raja in 1818 resided on account of the greater facility of procuring tin, the staple commodity, from the interior. Both there and at Salengore, the raja and the Capt. China are the only merchants on a large scale.

In A.D. 1784, in conjunction with the Rhio people, the Salengorians blockaded Malacca, but the state has since greatly declined, the inhabitants having migrated to more tranquil quarters. In 1822 the town of Salengore did not contain more than 400 inhabitants. In 1818 a treaty of commerce was concluded with Salengore by the Penang government, to anticipate the revival of the old monopoly then contemplated by the Dutch. On this occasion the raja also engaged, that if any British subjects were offered for sale in his dominions, he would seize them and send them back to Prince of Wales' Island.—(*Cracroft, &c.*)

Salgrams.—See Gunduck River.

Salemow.—A town in the province of Malwa, seventy-seven miles east from Bopaul; lat. 23° 23′ N., lon. 78° 43′ E.

Salianah.—A territory in Northern Hindostan, named also Khasant, adjoining the king of Oude's dominions. The town of Salianah stands on a high hill, where the chief has a brick house, surrounded by mud-walled huts; lat. 28° 37′ N., lon. 81° 5′ E., 120 miles N. by W. from Lucknow. The raja formerly held also some land on the plain within the Oude dominions, and in a valley between the hills had a considerable mart, called Jarapani or cool water, which is still a considerable thoroughfare. All the estates among the hills being seized by the Gorkhas, the family sought refuge on their possessions in the plains subject to the king of Oude, with whose territories, for some reason not very obvious, the Gorkhas never interfered. Why they respected them more than those of the East-India Company has never been ascertained, but that they did so is certain. The inhabitants of Salianah are five-eighths Khasiyas, or bastards of various kinds; one-eighth pure Brahmins; one-sixteenth bastard Brahmins; and the remaining three-sixteenths consist of various impure tribes.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Salibabo Isles.—A cluster of islands in the Eastern seas, situated about the fourth degree of north latitude, and between the 126th and 127th degrees of east longitude. The names of the principal are Tulour (or Kercolang), Salibabo, and Kabruang, the first being much the largest. Salibabo lies to the south of Tulour, from which it is separated by a narrow strait about one mile in breadth. The circumference is about fifteen miles.

All these islands are well cultivated and populous, having plenty of provisions, such as calavanses, potatoes, rice, goats, hogs, &c. The inhabitants are of the Malay colour, with long hair, and have for arms, lances, swords, targets, and daggers. They are much oppressed by their kolanos or chiefs, and sold as slaves for the most trifling offences. The inhabitants of Salibabo island are very frequently at war with those of Kabruang, distant five or six miles. They barter provisions with such ships as pass for coarse calicoes, red handkerchiefs, coarse cutlery, &c.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Salivaucum.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Chingleput, forty-four miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 37′ N., lon. 79° 54′ E.

Sallier.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, sixty-eight miles E.N.E. from Damaun; lat. 29° 42′ N., lon. 73° 59′ E.

Salpee.—A small town in the province of Bejapoor, belonging to the raja of Satara, situated at the foot of the stony pass that winds up along the bed of a nullah leading to the valley of Satara, from which town it is about twenty-one miles distant to the north-east.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Salsette Isle.—This island belonged to the Mogul province of Aurungabad, and was formerly separated from Bombay by a narrow and shallow strait, across which a causeway has lately been made. In length it may be estimated at eighteen miles, by thirteen the average breadth. The soil of this island is well adapted for the cultivation of indigo, sugar, cotton, flax, and hemp, and has of late been considerably improved by judicious regulations. The surface is an alternation of hill and dale, and the vallies, especially in the southern quarter, well cultivated. The most substantial improvement that has yet taken place is the causeway which connects Salsette with Bombay, completed by Mr. Duncan in 1805.

This island is remarkably rich in mythological antiquities, and the remains of tanks, terraces, flights of steps, and forests of wild palmyra trees, indicate a former state of prosperity, and the collection of a considerable population. At Kenneri, there are several very extraordinary caverns excavated, the largest resembling that at Carli, but inferior in size and elegance. Its peculiar ornaments are two gigantic figures of

Buddha, nearly twenty feet high, each filling one side of the vestibule. They are exactly alike and in perfect preservation, in consequence of their having been adopted and painted red by the Portuguese, who transformed the temple of Buddha into a Christian church. This island, named Salsette by Europeans, is by the natives called Jhalta, or Shaster, the derivation of which is uncertain. It was long possessed by the Portuguese, but was wrested from them by the Maharattas about A.D. 1750. In 1773, during a rupture with that nation, the Company's troops obtained possession, and it was afterwards formally ceded by the Maharattas at the treaty of Poorunder in 1776, and subsequently confirmed it in 1783, at which period all the small islands in the gulf formed by Bombay and Salsette were also acquired.

The population of Salsette was estimated ten years ago by the missionaries at about 50,000, of which number probably one-fifth might be Christians, members of the Portuguese church. The lower orders consist of cultivators, fishermen, and drawers of toddy. These, as may be supposed, are but indifferent Christians, who, whilst they are in the habit of attending a Christian sanctuary, still retain in their houses many symbols of the Hindoo mythology, and continue addicted to many pernicious usages of that superstition. Besides the native Christians of Salsette, there are resident at Tanna, the capital of the island, about one hundred or more European soldiers with their families, who have been invalided, or who have retired from the service, who prefer spending the remainder of their days in India to returning to the severe climate of their native country.

Notwithstanding its vicinity to the seat of government, no small proportion of the inhabitants of Salsette so late as 1824, were still as wild as Bheels, and their manners and customs as little known as the mountain Gonds. These are the charcoal burners, an occupation exercised by a peculiar caste, who dwell entirely in the woods, have no intercourse with the Hindoos of the plain, and bring down loads of charcoal to particular spots, whence it is carried away by the dealers in that article, who deposit in its place a payment settled by custom, of rice, clothing, and iron tools. Several attempts have been made at different times to become better acquainted with this secluded race, but with little success, partly owing to their excessive shyness, and partly to the contempt in which they are held by their Hindoo neighbours.

The civilized inhabitants of Salsette are generally so quiet and tractable a race, that in 1813 it was stated by the magistrate, that for more than two years no native of the island had been committed for trial, the only cases brought before the court during that period having been crimes committed by native military officers and soldiers. Petty quarrels and assaults were frequent, originating from too liberal potations of intoxicating liquors, which are unfortunately both cheap and abundant. It is difficult to say what is the dialect of this island, for the inhabitants being composed of many different nations, their transactions are carried on in the English, Portuguese, Maharatta, Concanese, Hindostany, and Gujeratty languages, in all of which mortgages, deeds of sale, and partnership, and accounts current are occasionally kept and registered. Most of the pleadings before the judge have hitherto been carried on in the English language; that most frequently used for colloquial purposes is the corrupt jargon called the Concanese. In 1813 the revenue of Salsette, from all sources, amounted to 2,35,807 rupees. In 1820 David Malcolm, Esq., of Bombay, applied for a five years' lease of forty begas (about fourteen acres) of land on the island of Salsette, with a view to the experimental culture of Bourbon cotton, but the Bombay presidency being fettered by the orders of the Court of Directors, prohibiting all grants of land to Europeans, withheld its sanction

from the lease of this small quantity. —(*Hallet, Missionaries, Fullarton, Bishop Heber, Lord Valentia, Warden, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Salt Range *(of mountains)*.—A chain of mountains in Afghanistan, which commences from the south-east side of the Suffaid Coh, or White Mountain, which is the northern peak of the Soliman range in Cabul, from whence it extends in a south-easterly direction, by the south of Teree, to Calabaugh, where it crosses the Indus, stretches across the Punjab, and ends at Jelalpoor on the right bank of the Jhylum or Hydaspes. This range abounds in salt, which is dug out in various forms at different places. To the eastward it yields a rock salt of a brownish colour, which is used in Hindostan and known by the name of Lahore salt.

Saluen River *(the Thau Leuen of the Burmese)*.—A river of India beyond the Ganges, the source of which is unknown, but which, according to the Burmese authorities, passes through the Chinese province, where it is named the Lookiang, and afterwards through the Laos or Shan country. Notwithstanding the remoteness of its source, it cannot rank high either for size or utility. Its channel is broad but shallow, and much obstructed by shoals, islands, and rapids, that, excepting its southern branch, and its mouth, is not navigable for vessels of any considerable size. Immediately below the town of Martaban it is divided by the large island of Pooloo Yoon (or Bilu) into two branches before it reaches the sea. The southern of these at its mouth is seven miles broad; the northern, although wide, is dangerous, and impracticable for ships of burthen.

Three large rivers, the Saluen, the Gain, and the Attaran, join opposite to Martaban, where they form a vast expanse of water; inland they diverge to different points of the compass. The Gain river is supposed to have its sources in the hills that separate Martaban from Siam, its course being towards the west. This is a stream of considerable breadth but of no great depth, its channel being much obstructed by sand-bank islands and sand-banks. The Attaran has its source in the same region as the Gain, but is a narrow, sluggish stream in its whole course. Mr. Crawfurd, in the Diana steam-boat, ascended it seventy miles when the water was at the lowest, without experiencing any difficulty; above that point it suddenly narrowed and became a mountain rivulet. The tide in all these rivers runs up 100 miles from the mouth, and to that distance the navigation for boats and small craft is safe and easy. The course of all three in the vicinity of Martaban is through a champaign country of great fertility.

Samanah.—A large town (now in ruins) in the province of Delhi, seventeen miles S.S.W. from Pattiallah.

Samanap.—A Dutch residency in the island of Madura, inhabited principally by Chinese and Malays; lat. 7° 5′ S., lon. 114° E.

Samadang.—A large inland town in Java, situated on the high road from Buitenzorg to Cheribon, 144 miles travelling distance E.S.E. from Buitenzorg; lat. 6° 45′ S., lon. 107° 55′ E.

Samaikan.—A village in Ava situated within the district attached to the capital. This is a mart from whence cotton is exported to the China market, and in the vicinity saltpetre of an excellent quality is manufactured; but the price is double that of the best quality in the Calcutta market. It is a royal monopoly and jealously watched.

Samar.—An island in the Eastern seas, one of the Philippines, situated S.E. from Luzon, from which it is separated by a strait about five leagues in breadth. In length it may be estimated at 140 miles, by sixty the average breadth. The soil is extremely fertile, and cultivated with little trouble. Besides other grains, the native Bisayans raise a considerable quantity of rice, which is wholly appropriated

to the use of the parochial clergy or of the settlement at Manilla. The food of the natives consists chiefly of a species of potato, yams, and a root named gaby. The sugar-cane, cabbages, garlic, onions, melons, the China orange, lemons, vegetables, and several fruits not common in India, are cultivated here, particularly figs, of which there are many different species. Pepper, honey, and wax are found in the woods which swarm with birds, and among others, the domestic fowl. In these forests also there are many kinds of monkeys, some remarkably large, deer, wild buffaloes, and other quadrupeds. The iron-tree, ebony, and dying woods grow in every part of the island, and gold-dust is found in the interior.

The natives of Samar are Bisayans; such as reside on the sea-coast were formerly Mahomedans, but have been converted by the missionary Jesuits to the religion and allegiance of Spain. Their houses are constructed of bamboos, and raised a few feet from the ground to admit of a circulation of air underneath, and the natives generally are lodged, fed, and clothed at very little expense. The streams are everywhere shaded by the bamboo, and the woods contain creeping plants and rattans, which supply the stead of nails in a Bisayan's dwelling. Cotton and the fibres of the banyan fig-tree furnish materials for the scanty apparel he requires. The priests exercise over them a patriarchal control, which is in general cheerfully submitted to. Advice and admonition on their part is always accompanied with some small present of wine, medicines, liquor, or animal food, which influences the Indian to an industry he would not otherwise exert. When punishment is necessary it is promptly inflicted, which the priest is enabled to do by acting in a military as well as sacerdotal capacity. In his own parish it is competent to each missionary to issue orders for building or repairing the fortress, for providing it with cannon and ammunition, and for the construction of war canoes, which he frequently commands in person. The instrument mostly used, both for the purposes of war and industry, is a species of creese, somewhat different from that of the Malays. Formerly the galleon always touched here on the passage from Acapulco to Manilla, which attracted the Indians from the neighbouring islands.—(*La Page, &c.*)

SAMARANG.—A large district in Java, which formerly ranked second in importance to Batavia. Under the old Dutch government, the administration of the Eastern districts of Java was conducted by a governor and council residing at Samarang, whose authority was very great, being the only channel of communication with the governor-general at Batavia. The ambassadors to the native courts of Suryacarta and Yugyacarta corresponded with him, and by him the succession to the throne of the Susuhunan and sultan was decided. Although (such was the false economy of the Dutch East-India Company) he literally had no salary whatever from the government treasury, the resident at Samarang was supposed to realize from his perogatives an income of not less than 30,000 dollars per annum. This absurd system continued without alteration until the arrival of Marshal Daendal in 1808, when most of these illegal emoluments were appropriated by government, and fixed salaries allowed to the different residents, who were prohibited all commerce in the productions of their respective districts. By these and other energetic measures a much more regular, efficient, and pure administration than had existed at any prior period was first introduced by a military officer.

According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the Samarang district occupied an area of 1,166 square miles, and contained a population of 327,610 persons, of which number 1,139 were Chinese.—(*Raffles, &c.*)

SAMARANG.—A town in the island of Java, of which it is the principal central station; lat. 6° 56′ S., lon. 110°

27′ E. This is a large town, and in 1815 contained 20,000 inhabitants, including a considerable European population. It is defended by a stone parapet and rampart, with bastions and a wet ditch, but only calculated to resist a native power. Between the town and the sea is an impassable morass, which prevents any approach from that side but by two raised causeways. It has a neat appearance and contains a number of good houses, besides a large church and town house. The commerce of Samarang is extensive, it being the general depôt of this quarter of the island, which produces large quantities of rice, sugar, coffee, and pepper.—(*Thorn, Stavorinus, &c.*)

Sambapilly.—A small village in the island of Ceylon within the Candian territories, fifty miles S.W. from Batacolo; lat. 7°21′ N., lon. 81° 20′ E. This place is above seventy marching miles from Surcamong, the intervening country being excessively wild and mountainous. For sixty miles of the above distance not a house or human creature is to be seen, nor is there any thing to indicate that it ever was peopled, except the paths through the jungles and round the bases of the hills. One broad and several lesser rivers cross the route. In the immediate vicinity of Sambapelly the country presents a more favourable appearance, some villages are discernible, and the vallies are partially cultivated. Further on advancing towards Candy the surface continues mountainous, but the declivities of the hills are cleared in many places, and the vallies generally, under tillage.—(*Major Johnston, &c.*)

Sambass.—A town on the west coast of Borneo, situated about forty miles up a river of the same name; lat. 1° 3′ N., lon. 109° 25′ E. The houses, as in nearly all the seaport towns of Borneo, consist of timber and bamboos, raised on wooden piles or posts in low swampy morasses. A proneness to piracy on the part of the inhabitants of Sambass had rendered this quarter of Borneo unsafe for European trading vessels, the crews of which were frequently massacred with the most savage barbarity. The place was in consequence attacked by the Phœnix frigate in 1812, but owing to the want of land forces was unsuccessful. A second expedition in 1813, after an obstinate resistance, captured Sambass, and expelled the piratical horde that occupied it.—(*Thorn, Elmore, &c.*)

Samber (*Sambhara, or Sacambhari*).—A Rajpoot town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about fifty-one miles N.N.E. from the city of Ajmeer; lat. 26° 53′ N., lon. 74° 57′ E. To the north-east is a salt lake twenty miles long by one and a half broad, from whence a considerable portion of Upper Hindostan is supplied with salt, and from whence during the Mogul government it was carried as far as Benares and Bahar. Every year after the rains the water becomes so strongly impregnated, that when the lake dries up it is found crystallized in large quantities under a layer of mud. It is collected towards the close of the hot season, without having undergone any artificial process; it is then spread out and exposed to the sun for ten or fifteen days, in which space of time it hardens and forms large lumps, which are gathered into heaps; on these a quantity of dry grass is placed and set fire to, which calcines the external surface, and forms a covering sufficiently hard to resist the rain. In this last state it is sold, and reaches the different markets much broken by the jolting of the carriages.

There are many other salt lakes in this quarter of Hindostan, and more especially one to the west of Joudpoor. Indeed, the soil throughout is so impregnated with salt substances that it is very rare to see a hollow or low spot without a saline efflorescence on the surface.—(*J. Grant, J. T. Brown, James Fraser, &c.*)

Sambilang Isles (*or nine islands*).—A cluster of small islets lying off the east-coast of Malacca, opposite to the Perak river; lat. 4° N., lon. 100° 35′ E.

SAMBOANGAN.—A Spanish settlement on the south-western extremity of the island of Magindanao; lat. 6° 45′ N., lon. 122° 10′ E. The town of Samboangan is situated on the banks of a small rivulet that flows into the sea. The number of inhabitants is about 1,000; among which are included the officers, soldiers, and their families. In its environs are several small look-out houses, erected on posts twelve feet high, in all of which a constant guard is kept against the hostilities of the natives, with whom the Spaniards are in a perpetual state of hostility. The fort is very indifferent as a place of defence, and in a state of rapid decay. The houses are erected on posts, are built of bamboos, and covered with mats; and the Spanish inhabitants, in place of attempting to improve the natives in the arts and conveniencies of life, are insensibly sinking down to their condition and adopting their manners. The only edifice of note is the church, which in a Spanish settlement is always good. It is built of stone.

The military force at Samboangan in 1788 consisted of from 150 to 200 soldiers, natives of Manilla, who were as defective in discipline as the fort was in strength. This place is the Botany Bay of the Philippines, particular crimes being punished by banishment to this place; the conduct of the inhabitants, however, is much better than this circumstance would indicate, which is in a great measure owing to the exertions of the priests that are settled among them. The navigators who have accidently called here have been surprised to find the inhabitants, both of Spanish extraction and natives, so well acquainted with European music, more especially Handel's, and country dances, which are here performed on violins, bassoons, and flutes, the orchestra being composed of natives of the island. For this they are also indebted to the priests, who have likewise taught them to dance; a species of agility extremely repugnant to an Asiatic disposition.

The country adjacent to Samboangan is fertile, and the cattle have multiplied so greatly as to be of little value. At this place the Spaniards stop the Chinese junks bound to the eastward. The anchorage before the fort is foul and rocky, but abreast the town it is better. The Spaniards here and their subjects are much infested by piratical prows, which plunder and cut off vessels richly laden, while lying in the harbour, and frequently make descents close to the fort and carry off the inhabitants, whom they sell into slavery.

About A.D. 1755 this fortress was nearly captured by the Sooloos by the following stratagem: one of their sultans, Ameer ul Momenin, came with a numerous retinue to Samboangan, under pretence of being converted, but the plot was discovered, and the sultan with his family sent prisoners to Manilla, where they remained until the capture of that place by the British in 1762, when they were liberated.—(*Mears, Forrest, Sonnerat, &c.*)

SAMEE.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles S.W. from Jaloun; lat. 26° 2′ N., lon. 78° 59′ E.

SAMET SIKHAR.—A mountain in the province of Bahar, on the frontier of Ramghur, and 136 miles south from Boglipoor, on which are situated the temples dedicated to Parswanatha (the twenty-third deified saint of the Jains), and one of the principal Jain sanctuaries in Hindostan. They consist of four large square brick buildings painted white, with a dome in the centre, and four small domes at the four corners. The centre is surmounted by a gilded spire, like the Buddhist temples of Ava, and the domes by trellices of gilt copper. A brick wall surrounds the whole, and at the end is a serai for the accommodation of pilgrims and worshippers.

On an elevated throne inside, covered with brocade, is seated a small black stone image of Parswanatha, sitting cross-legged, with his hands before him, and on his head, fashion-

ed like a turban, are seven expanded heads of the hooded snake, the invariable crest and symbol of Parswanath. The officiating priests have cloths tied over their mouths, under the chin, and fastened at the top of the head, to prevent their swallowing any thing that has life.

The ascent to the Parswanath mountain commences by a winding path, surrounded on all sides by thick jungle, and goes over most difficult ground, broken by ravines and impeded by large mis-shapen rocks. The top is said to tower up to the clouds, terminating in eight jagged peaks. The summit, or part more especially named Samet Sikhar, comprises a small table-land, flanked by twenty Jain temples, stuck on the craggy steeps and different other spots. In form these temples very much resemble an extinguisher, containing within the Padukas or sacred steps. On the south side of the mountain, about half way down, is a very large and handsome flat-roofed temple, containing several figures of Parswanath, cross-legged and with the serpent crown.—(*Col. Wm. Franklin, &c.*)

Samgaum *(Syama grama).* — A town in the Carnatic province, district of Nellore, seventeen miles N.W. from the town of Nellore; lat. 14° 25′ N., lon. 79° 47′ E.

Samraiyot *(or three hundred peaks).*—A small village in the kingdom of Siam, situated on the west coast of the gulf, about lat. 12° N. All junks bound from Bankok to China or Cochin China, fill up their water here, and then strike across the gulf due east. The sea-coast here is rough and steep.—(*Burney, &c.*)

Samrode. — A village, formerly considerable, in the province of Candeish, sixteen miles N. by E. from the foot of the Ajuntee ghaut, and remarkable as the spot where the wreck of Sindia's army encamped after the battle of Assye.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Samudra. — See Sivana Samudra.

Samulcottah.—A town and fort in the Northern Circars, district of Rajamundry, twenty-nine miles travelling distance E. by N. from the town of Rajamundry. This is an extensive straggling town, and meanly built, but it contains two Hindoo temples of singular architecture, and bearing evident marks of considerable antiquity. The fort is a large square, with high mud walls, stone gateways, and a wet ditch. Within it are neat barracks and several bungalows, and without there is a small cantonment, where a battalion of Madras infantry is usually stationed.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Samwar.—A town in the province of Malwa, sixteen miles from Oojein, situated on the west bank of the Khaond river. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia, and contained above 800 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sandalwood.—See Maggeri and Periapatam.

Sandalwood Island. — A large island in the Eastern seas situated to the south of Floris, about the tenth degree of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at 100 miles, by thirty the average breadth. The native name is Sumba. It is described as remarkably level, and destitute of any high hill, or even any considerable elevation. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but about A.D. 1800 the natives withdrew their allegiance because the Dutch cut down the sandal-wood trees, believing the existence of a native to be connected with that of each tree. Since then there has been but little external intercourse, and that principally carried on by the way of Endé or Floris. The natives are said to resemble those of the interior of Floris, but with an additional portion of enterprize and ferocity, which frequently stimulate them to attempt the cutting off of coasting vessels. The Buggesses procure here, annually, considerable quantities of

birds'-nests and bees'-wax. Sandalwood island and that of Floris may be considered the westernmost, on which the natives have frizzled hair; those of Sumbhawa and of the islands still more to the west having universally long hair.—(*Malay Miscellanies, &c.*)

SANDERWEIL.—A town in the province of Gujerat, which in 1816 belonged to the Guicowar; lat. 21° 4′ N., lon. 73° 44′ E.; thirty-six miles S.E. from Surat. The S.E. road from Bursa to this place is a pathway leading over hills and vallies covered with jungle, and intersected by numerous streams, mostly without water during the dry season. The teak tree abounds in the jungle, but is of too small a size for any purpose beyond house-building. The Bheels who inhabit this hilly tract are of a more pacific disposition than those to the north and south; but the jungles are much infested by tigers and beasts of prey.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

SANDING ISLES (*Pulo Sanding.*)—Two small islands situated off the S. W. coast of Sumatra, near the south-eastern extremity of the Nassau or Poggy islands, in which group they are sometimes included. They are both inhabited, and their only remarkable production is the long nutmeg, which grows wild; and some good timber, particularly the kind known by the name of Marbaw. An officer and a few men were landed here in 1769 with a view to the establishment of a settlement, and remained a few months, during which time it rained without cessation. The scheme was subsequently abandoned, as unlikely to answer any good purpose.—(*Marsden, &c.*)

SANDOWY.—A town and district in the province of Arracan, 175 miles S.S.E. from the town of Arracan; lat. 18° 10′ N., lon. 94° 5′ E. This place was captured without resistance in May 1825, and was subsequently selected as a head station for a British corps on account of its reputation for salubrity. The cantonments stand on a spot of ground on the right bank of a river which had been well cleared and drained, and the native town in 1827 had much increased both in extent and population.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

SANDY.—A small village in the province of Oude, with a large jeel swarming with wild fowl in its vicinity; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 79° 50′ E.; twenty-five miles E.S.E. from Furruckabad. From Lucknow to this place the country (in 1824) appeared populous and well cultivated. In the dry season, after the earth and sun have absorbed most of its moisture, part of the jeel is cultivated, while the rest remains covered with grass and aquatic plants.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

SANGIR ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, situated between the third and fourth degrees of north latitude and the 125th and 126th degrees of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at thirty miles by ten the average breadth; and it is surrounded by forty-six smaller islands of various dimensions. Viewed from the sea, the surface appears high and well wooded; and the coast has better harbours and is less dangerous from hidden rocks and shoals than most of the Eastern Archipelago. The country is well inhabited, and affords refreshments of various kinds, such as bullocks, hogs, goats, and poultry; and coco-nuts are in such plenty that an oil is expressed from them and exported. Spices are also procured, in which a trade is carried on to Magindanao.

About the middle of the west coast is the town, bay, and harbour of Taroona, opposite to which on the east coast is also a town and harbour called Tabookang, the harbour of which is sheltered by two islands. There are many other harbours towards the south end of the island, along the middle of which runs a ridge of high mountains, terminated to the northward by a lofty volcano, from which there was a great erup-

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tion in 1711. This island was formerly under the influence of the Dutch, who maintained a small garrison on it, and made many converts to Christianity, principally by the exertions of the missionaries, who preached in the Malay tongue, and had subordinate black preachers. The islands of Salibabo, Kabruang, and Nanusan, were formerly subject to Sangir, and afterwards came with it under the influence of the Dutch. —(*Forrest, Mears, &c.*)

Sanglee.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, division of Mortizabad, eight miles N.W. from Merritch. This is a town of considerable extent and strength belonging to the Putwurdun family, where in 1820 Chintamun Row, a discontented jaghiredar, resided in grim repose, his propensity to plundering being restrained by the British government.

Sanjore *(Sanjara)*.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, named also Sachore, situated at the south-western extremity, about 140 miles N.E. from the gulf of Cutch; lat. 24° 40′ N., lon. 71° 38′ E. The road between this town and Theraud, on the north-western frontier of the Gujerat province, is infested by predatory Baloochy banditti of the Kosa tribe, who render the road impassable without a strong escort. In 1809 the town of Sanjore belonged to the raja of Joudpoor, but the neighbouring country was under no general control, every village having then a separate chief, who plundered wherever he hoped to do so with impunity. In 1821 this place was under Jhallore, one of the principal stations of the Joudpoor government.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Sankaseer.—A considerable town in the province of Bejapoor, division of Ryebaugh, situated on the left bank of the Hurruncassy, about forty-six miles travelling distance S.W. of Merritch. There is a remarkable temple here, dedicated to Mahadeva, to which the town and lands adjacent are subject, although within the Colapoor territory, being administered by the officiating Brahmins, who inhabit a sort of fort or enclosure, distinct from the body of the place. The fortress of Wullubghur stands on the hill above.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Sankin.—A town in the province of Allahabad belonging to the petty state of Sumpter, seven miles N.N.E. from the town of Sumpter; lat 25° 54′ N., lon. 78° 53′ E.

Sanore.—See Shanoor.

Sansadara Fall.—A fall, or rather rapid, in the Nerbudda river, five miles below Mheshwar in Malwa, impassable for large boats and difficult for canoes, which during the hot weather make use of a back-water, deepened for the purpose.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sansadhara.—A remarkable dropping cavern in Northern Hindostan, situated in a deep and romantic glen on a branch of the Songh rivulet, among the mountains that form the northern boundary of the Deyrah Doon, seven miles N. by E. from the town of Deyrah. The water from the rock above oozes through the roof in an incessant shower, and has formed by its action innumerable calcareous stalactites of great size and beauty, which have taken the shape of the roots, moss, and other decayed vegetable substances over which the water had passed.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Santi Bachully.—A considerable walled village in the Mysore province, situated on a rising ground, thirty-four miles N. by W. from Seringapatam. It contains several Hindoo temples.

Santipoor.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Hooghly river, where the government have a commercial factory and resident, forty-three miles north from Calcutta; lat. 23° 13′ N., lon. 88° 33′ E.

Sanweer.—A large and regularly-built village in the province of Mal-

wa, division of Oojein, sixteen miles south from the city of Oojein.

SANYASSIGOTTA *(Sanyasicata).*—A subdivision of the Rungpoor district, in the province of Bengal, situated at the north-western extremity, and having in its centre a pergunnah belonging to the Deb raja of Bootan. The town of Sanyasicata derives its name from a Hindoo temple, so called, the origin of which has the following tradition. When the first raja of the Kaycots was building a fortress, the workmen in digging down came upon a religious person underground (a Sanyasi), who was in this manner passing his time in devout retirement and meditation. He was wounded by the pioneers before they discovered him; but he made no complaint, only requesting that they would cover him up again. This was accordingly done, and a convent (akra) for persons of his order built over him.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

SAOLEE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, forty miles N.E. from Cambay; lat. 22°46′ N., lon. 73°22′ E.

SAPAROUA ISLE.—One of the small Amboyna isles, about twenty miles in circumference; lat. 3° 40′ S., lon. 28° 40′ E. This island, with that of Noussa Laut, formerly yielded the Dutch East-India Company one-half of the whole cloves exported by the Amboyna government.

SAPATA ISLE *(Pulo Sapata).*—A small elevated barren island in the Eastern seas, thus named by the Portuguese on account of its resemblance to a shoe, which in their language it means, joined with the word pulo, the Malay for an island. In appearance from the sea it is nearly perpendicular, and white like the cliffs of Dover, with innumerable sea fowl continually hovering and screaming over it. Lat. 10° 4′ N., lon. 109° 10′ E.

SAPTARI.—The middle portion of the Muckwanpoor principality, in Northern Hindostan, was partitioned by the Nepaulese into two districts, and placed under two distict functionaries. The first of these comprehends the tract of country called Saptari, which is mostly situated in the low country, bounded on the E. by the Cosi river, and limited on the W. by the Rati. Very little of the hilly country belongs to it, as the divisions of Khatang and Muckwanpoor come low down and meet at Kamal. Its geographical features entirely resemble those of the terriani or low country, and its vegetable productions are in every respect the same. The most remarkable places within the limits of Saptari are Naragari, a small fort on the plain, where the soubah resides; Bhimagari, another and similar place, where he occasionally resides; and Janakpoor, a place celebrated in Hindoo fable. No vestiges remain of former magnificence, if they ever existed.

In 1809 the total revenue collected by the soubah, or superintendant, amounted to 1,27,550 rupees, of which 69,957 rupees arose from land-rent, and fines on marriages, concubines, and adulterers. At Jaleswar, in Mahatari, south from Janakpoor, the raja formerly had a manufactory of saltpetre and gunpowder, and at Sisuya, on the Cosi, there is one iron mine.

The Tharoo caste, resembling in its manners the Gangayi of Morung, composes the greatest portion of the population that are dwellers on the plain. Next to these are about equal parts of impure Bohars and of the military and agricultural tribe of Brahmins called Aniwar, both of which have at different times been sovereigns of the country. Immediately under the hills are many Batars, who speak the Hindi language. The lower hills are occupied by Sringuyas, a ramification of the Limboo tribe, and also by Magars, Rajpoots, and Khass, the first of recent introduction.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

SARAPILLY *(Sarapalli).*—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Nellore, seven miles south from the town of Nellore; lat. 14° 13′ N., lon. 80° 1′ E.

Saraswati River.—A river of Upper Hindostan, which has its source in the hills towards the north-east of Sirhind, from whence it flows in a south-westerly direction into the large province of Rajpootana, where it is absorbed during its progress through that arid country. Vinasana is the place where the Saraswati terminates, losing itself in the sandy desert. It was probably in ancient times of much greater magnitude, as a river of this name marks a geographical division in the Hindoo mythological poems; but there is also another Saraswati, which must have flowed in an opposite direction, as, according to Hindoo notions, it still joins the Ganges and Jumna underground, at Allahabad.

Sarawaddy.—A town and district in Pegu, the first seventy-seven miles N.W. from Rangoon; lat. 17° 40′ N., lon. 95° 43′ E. The surrounding country abounds with teak and other timber forests.

Sarawah.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, province of Pegu, situated on the Irawady, eighty miles N.W. from Rangoon; lat. 17° 30′ N., lon. 95° 52′ E. This is a large and populous place, the head-quarters of his Burmese majesty's war-boats in Pegu. One fish-tank here is farmed by government for a sum equal to about £1,000 per annum.—(*Snodgrass, &c.*)

Sarawak.—A port in the island of Borneo, from whence antimony is exported.

Sarhaut (*srikat, an affluent mart*).—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Birboom, eighty-five miles west from the city of Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 14′ N., lon. 86° 51′ E.

Sareila.—A fortified town and pergunnah in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles S. by W. from Calpee; lat. 25° 48′ N., lon. 79° 38′ E.

Saringhur.—A pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, dependent on Sumbhulpoor, from which it is seventy miles west. The high road from Ruttunpoor passes through it, in consequence of which it suffered much from military exactions while tributary to Nagpoor. It became subject to the British government in 1818, when the assessment in money was reduced from 4,500 to 3,500 Sumbhulpoor rupees.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

Sarjew (*Sareyu*) River.—See Goggra River.

Sarmatta Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about thirty miles in circumference, situated in lat. 8° 10′ S., lon. 129° 15′ E.

Sarowy (*Serohi*).—A division of the Ajmeer province, of which it occupies the western portion, between the twenty-fourth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Sarowy, containing six mahals, revenue 42,077,437 dams. This circar furnishes 8,000 cavalry and 38,000 infantry." To the north the limits of this district disappear in the great desert; on the south is the province of Gujerat; and on the west the channel of the Banass river and the dominions of the Ameers of Sinde. Until recently, when its internal commotions attracted the attention of the British government, this portion of Hindostan remained quite unknown, and was supposed to be an almost uninhabitable desert; but a more intimate acquaintance with its circumstances has tended considerably to modify that opinion, its evil condition being evidently much more the work of man than of nature. The soil is described as fertile, and, what is of the last importance in India, every where abounding with water; the cattle are also of a most superior quality. Indeed, the capabilities of Sarowy are very great, and its position important, as it commands several strong passes, and is central with respect to the frontier posts of the Bengal and Bombay presidencies, between which it forms a connecting link. A considerable portion of its

former revenue consisted of duties levied on the transit of goods from the ports of Cutch and the northern cities of Gujerat to the cities of Ajmeer and Paulee. The latter town is again becoming the emporium of this branch of the trade of Rajpootana.

The ancient history of this state is little known; but it has been ascertained that it never was politically dependent on Joudpoor or Palhanpoor, although both these states have in modern times laid claim to it, and deeply injured it by their intrigues and depredations. In 1822, when the raja appealed to Calcutta, it was found by Sir David Ochterlony in a state of complete desolation, infested from within by the savage Bheels and Meenas (who form a considerable portion of the population), and from without by the two states above-mentioned, who plundered its territories under various pretences. By these oppressions, joined to internal anarchy, the condition of this principality became so distracted, that it was fast approaching a state of political dissolution, when it excited the commiseration of the British government, as well from motives of humanity as with a view of maintaining tranquillity, which cannot long continue disturbed in one quarter of India without gradually extending to the others.

It being found quite impracticable to restore order, or recover the country from actual ruin, without the decided intervention of the British government, in 1823 a detachment of troops, under intelligent officers, was marched into the country, and the states of Joudpoor and Palhanpoor directed to abstain from hostilities, and refer their claims to the arbitration of the predominating power. The protection afforded by the British government to the petty states of Hindostan is general, not partial; and as no one has a right to injure its neighbour, neither can any one claim merit for refraining from committing injuries, which is a duty it owes to the paramount states. In too many cases the British treaties have given chiefs and princes a power of oppression and tyranny which they would not have dared to exercise under the old political constitution of India, lest it should be followed by conspiracy and dethronement. At present, however, it is to be clearly understood that the protecting state of the federal alliance will not tolerate tyranny in the ruler any more than rebellion in the subject, its object being to preserve these petty communities from the baneful effects of their own folly, perverseness, and ignorance, as well as against the aggressions of external foes. Indeed, Sarowy is so situated with regard to Palhanpoor and other countries subordinate to Bombay, that they cannot long remain quiet if Sarowy be disturbed.—(*Sir David Ochterlony, Capt. Waugh, Capt. Spiers, &c.*)

Sarowy.—The capital of the preceding principality, situated about sixty-two miles from Odeypoor; lat. 24° 52′ N., lon. 73° 15′ E. The Sarowy raja's family is a branch of that of Pertaubghur Deolah, and thence called Deolah Rajpoots. They are Sesodyas of the Rana of Odeypoor's own line, yet were considered independent both of that state and of Odeypoor, having never paid tribute except when it was extorted by the edge of the sword. About ten years ago the real heir of Sarowy was deposed for his crimes, when Row Sheo Singh, the present ruler, was appointed manager. When taken under the British protection in 1823, on account of the exhausted state of the Row's treasury and the impoverished condition of his country, he was excused tribute for four years. The privilege of sanctuary named "sirna" is particularly prevalent among the petty chiefs and their feudatories in this quarter, by whom it is still maintained in its full vigour, although one of the greatest defects of the ancient Rajpoot constitution, now going rapidly to decay. This was once the most frequented road for

commerce between Gujerat and Upper Hindostan, which will probably return, as on the British protection being notified in 1823, many predatory Bheels and Meenas quitted their haunts among the hills and settled on the plains in their former villages. Should war ever ensue between the British government and the Ameers of Sinde, this town will be the central point of union for any operations that may be undertaken against that state by the armies of Madras and Bengal. —(*Sir D. Ochterlony, Capt. Waugh, Capt. Spiers, &c.*)

SARROWLY.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Gorucpoor, fifty-one miles N.W. from the town of Gorucpoor; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 82° 47′ E.

SARTUL.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harrowtee, situated on the right bank of the Newry river. In 1820 it contained about 1,500 inhabitants.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SARUN (*Sarana, an asylum*).—A district in the province of Bahar, situated about the twenty-sixth degree of north latitude. It also comprehends the division of Bettiah, or Chumparun. To the north it is bounded by Gorucpoor and Muckwanpoor; on the south by the Ganges; to the east it has Tirhoot; and on the west the Dewa, or Goggra. In 1784, according to Major Rennell's mensuration, Sarun and Bettiah contained 5,106 square miles, of which area the particular space distinguished by the name of Sarun occupied 2,560 square miles. So late as 1810 a small segment of this district continued on the opposite side of the Great Ganges, immediately above the Dinapoor cantonments, a geographical irregularity which has probably since been rectified.

The Sarun division, for its dimensions, is one of the most prosperous in the British dominions, and has for a long period been in the highest state of cultivation. The land is plentifully supplied with moisture by two large rivers, the Ganges and the Gunduck, besides numerous smaller streams, and the soil, under proper tillage, yields abundantly all the richest productions of the East: it consequently contains scarcely any waste or jungle, so that the farmers are under the necessity of sending their cattle into other quarters to graze. Circar Chumparun, or Bettiah, has not been so fortunate, as it suffered severely during the great famine of 1770, when almost half of its inhabitants are supposed to have perished. Besides this, the zemindars having for many years been deprived of their lands, which were leased to ignorant and rapacious revenue contractors, experienced such oppression, that the majority of the population that survived the famine were obliged to abscond, leaving the country almost a desert. Since that melancholy epocha the zemindars have been re-established by the decennial settlement; many of the ancient inhabitants have returned, and cultivation has been on the increase.

The Bettiah division is situated at the northern extremity, and in 1784, including Chumparun, had an area of 2,546 square miles, which, it is remarkable, was never properly subjugated until after the acquisition of the dewanny by the East-India Company in 1765. The chief towns are Bettiah, Boggah, and Maissy; and the principal river the Gunduck, on the banks of which, and indeed all over the pergunnah, large timber trees for ship-building are procured, and a little to the north firs for masts and spars. The agricultural produce of the Sarun division is of a more valuable description, consisting of opium, tobacco, wheat, barley, flax, peas, linseed, and a small quantity of cotton. The breed of cattle is also excellent, and the bullocks equal to the government standard for the ordnance department, for which purpose, and for the table, they are only rivalled by those of Gujerat. It is remarkable that the natives in the adjoining districts should never have attempted to improve their own breed

of cattle to the same degree of excellence. In 1801 only two zemindaries of any magnitude were held by persons professing the Mahomedan faith, that religion appearing never to have attained a predominance in this quarter of the Bahar province. In 1814 the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, amounted to 11,40,560 rupees.

There are few articles of trade manufactured in Sarun, and European merchants never found its cloths to suit the home market. The principal mercantile commodity is saltpetre, a great part of that used throughout Bengal and exported to Europe being the production of Sarun. Government has two factories, one for the provision of cloth of a particular quality, and the other for collecting saltpetre on government account. Good roads are much wanted, as the commercial transactions of the merchants who trade from the south and east to Benares, Oude, and Nepaul, would be greatly facilitated if highways were made and kept in order from Hajypoor to the Goggra river, from Chuprah to the frontiers of Nepaul, and from Maissy to Durrouly.

Almost every village had formerly a mud fort belonging to it, to which the inhabitants resorted when attacked by their neighbours. The remains of these are still visible, but in a ruinous condition. There is not a bridge in the whole district; neither is there any institution where the Hindoo or Mahomedan law is taught. In every large village there are schools, where Hindoo children are instructed in reading, writing, and accounts, for which the parents pay a weekly stipend to the teacher. In 1801, when the Marquis Wellesley issued his statistical queries, the judge and collector each returned their estimates of the population, which agreed in the aggregate of 1,200,000 inhabitants. But a prodigious discrepancy appeared in their respective estimates of the proportion that the Mahomedans bore to the Hindoos, the judge reckoning them one in 500, the collector at one in four. Comparing them with the adjacent districts, they are probably about one in eight.—(*Colebrooke, J. Grant, Boddam, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Sarungpoor.—A subdivision of the Malwa province, situated between the twenty-third and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude. The town of Sarungpoor is in lat. 23° 35′ N., lon. 76° 35′ E., on the east side of the Cali Sinde river, and in 1820 contained about 2,000 houses. It is an ancient city, and is said to have been greatly improved by Baz Bahadur, the last Mahomedan prince of Malwa who assumed the title of king. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sasnee (*sasani, rule*).—A town in the province of Agra, thirty-eight miles N.N.E. from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 45′ N., lon. 78° 4′ E. In 1803 the zemindar, being refractory, was expelled after a desperate resistance. The fort was then remarkable for the great height and thickness of its mud ramparts, protected by a double ditch of no great depth, and without a glacis. After its reduction by Lord Lake the works were partially destroyed, and they are now only to be traced in their ruins. The modern town stands without the walls, and in 1820 was extensive and populous.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Sasseram (*Sahasram*).—A town in the Shahabad district, thirty-four miles south from Buxar; lat. 24° 58′ N., lon. 83° 58′ E. Shere Shah, the Afghan, who expelled the emperor Humayoon (the father of Acber) from Hindostan, was buried here in a magnificent mausoleum, built in the centre of a great reservoir of water. The monument rises from the middle of the tank, which is about a mile in circumference, and bounded on each side by masonry, the descent to the water being by a flight of steps now in ruins. The dome and the rest of the building is of a fine grey stone, at present much discoloured by age and neglect.

This is a large place, partly built

of stone, and contains other Mahomedan remains besides the mausoleum. Among the hills to the south-east, about four miles from Sasseram, is the water-fall of Deocoond (Devacunda), much resorted to as a sacred bathing-place by the Hindoos at one season of the year, and at all seasons the haunt of fakeers, who have their cells in the neighbouring rocks. For eight months of the year, however, it is destitute of water. Among these hills are still to be seen the ruins of bridges, and other indications of a former local importance. —(*Hodges, Fullarton, &c.*)

SATAHUNG.—The capital of a small rajaship in Hindostan, at present subject to the Nepaulese; lat. 28° 7′ N., lon. 83° 42′ E., seventy-nine miles W.N.W. from Catmandoo. This place stands on a hill, and formerly contained 250 thatched huts, besides the brick castle of the chief; whose whole territories (according to native report) contained 1,500 houses, and yielded a revenue of 2,000 rupees.

SATARA.—A strong hill fortress in the province of Bejapoor, fifty-six miles south from Poona, and 146 miles travelling distance from Bombay; lat. 17° 42′ N., lon. 74° 12′ E. The name signifies seventeen, being the number of walls, towers, and gates it possessed or was supposed to possess. It is situated midway between the Krishna and Tourna Ghaut, and stands on the western point of a hill rising from a base about seven miles in length from east to west. The hill on which the fort is placed is about 800 feet high, scarped perpendicularly near the summit, so as to present a solid wall of rock on all sides. At no great distance from Satara are many hill forts of great natural strength, the whole territory being in a manner studded with strong positions. Among these may be enumerated Chundun, Wundun, Nangherry, Wyratghur, Pandooghur, Kummulghur, Kunzulghur, and Kelinga.

The town or pettah of Satara lies at the bottom of the mountain, and in 1820 consisted of one long street of tiled huts, built partly of stone and partly of mud or unburned bricks, without even a Hindoo temple, or any public edifice of note. At that date a space had been cleared in the centre of the town, and preparations were going on for the erection of a new palace for the raja, the ancient residence of the family having long fallen to ruin, and the two small houses in the fort being quite unfit for his accommodation. In the mean time the raja occupied a dwelling of three stories high not far distant. The cantonments of the troops and habitation of the British resident were situated about two miles to the east of the town. The vale of Satara is one of the most pleasing tracts in the Deccan, rich in rice cultivation, and clumps of fine trees clustered around the villages. It stands within the influence of the sea-breeze, and from that circumstance, combined with its extraordinary elevation, enjoys a climate rarely to be found in similar latitudes. The sword of Sevajee is still preserved at Satara, where it is exhibited to strangers. It is a cut-and-thrust sword of Genoese fabrication.

Satara was taken from the sovereign of Bejapoor in 1651 by Sevajee, the founder of the Maharatta empire; and here for more than a century his descendants continued imprisoned by their nominal deputies the Peshwas, who nevertheless treated them with great respect. On succeeding to that office the Peshwa repaired to Satara, and received the khelaut or dress of investiture from his prisoner's hands; and when he took the field, he always went through the formality of having an audience to take leave of his pageant master. The country circumjacent to Satara also benefited by his residence, as it enjoyed exemption from military depredation; and whenever any chief entered its limits all the insignia of royalty were laid aside, and the nagara or great drum of the

empire ceased to beat. The father of the late raja was a private silladar, or commandant of horse; but being unfortunately of the genuine blood of Sevajee, on the demise of his predecessor he was exalted from a state of happy obscurity to the splendid misery of a throne and a prison. He died in May 1808, on which event the reigning Peshwa, Bajerow, proceeded to Satara to superintend his obsequies, and the investiture of his successor. After performing these solemnities, and assisting at the ceremonies of the young raja's marriage, he returned to Poona his capital, having previously made arrangements calculated to improve the condition of his prisoner.

In 1810 the Peshwa notified to the British minister the probability of the Satara raja's visiting Poona, and represented that in such an event he hoped the resident would pay the compliment that was due to his (the Peshwa's) sovereign, by waiting on him at the palace, and afterwards giving him an entertainment at the residency. Neither of these occurrences ever happened; but the circumstance of the Peshwa's wishing the British representative to hold public intercourse with the Satara raja, certifies how completely the inherent jealousy of the Maharatta character had been subdued by the persevering and honourable conduct which it had experienced on the part of the British government. It also proved how mildly in recent times state prisoners are dealt with by native politicians, who have a thorough reliance on its good faith. To a European diplomatist it appears an anomaly in politics, that intercourse should be held with a sovereign whom the British government did not acknowledge; but the events of the last twenty years have produced so fundamental a change in the ancient relations of the Indian powers, that many of their rights and privileges had virtually become annulled, and certainly in a great degree forgotten.

On the expulsion of the Peshwa in 1818, the British government determined to re-instate the Satara raja in a portion of his ancestors' dominions, and accordingly a certain tract of country was reserved for that purpose, and now constitutes the Satara dominions. This tract on the west is bounded by the western ghaut mountains; on the south by the Warna and Krishna rivers; on the north by the Neera and Beema rivers; and on the east by the frontier of the Nizam's dominions. The whole area occupies a surface of about 11,000 square miles; but of the country thus assigned, lands to the value of three lacks per annum by old jaghiredars, whose allegiance had been transferred to the British government, and as much more had been alienated. In 1821 the total net revenues of the Satara raja amounted to 15,60,000 rupees; and the total charges to 14,02,000 rupees, leaving a surplus of 1,77,840 rupees.

The principal towns are Satara, Punderpoor, Bejapoor, Mahabillysir, Merritch, and Huttany, besides many hill-forts, which if resolutely defended are almost impregnable. Some of these, however, have been dismantled, and the works of others suffered to fall into decay, but the strength of their former sites will always remain. The management of the raja's territories, and superintendence of his affairs, was in the first instance assigned to Captain Grant, until the country became thoroughly tranquillized, which gradually taking place, in April 1821, when the raja Nur Narrain having attained the age of twenty-one, was invested with the uncontrolled administration of his dominions. — (*Fullarton, Captain Grant, Tone, Prinsep, Elphinstone, &c.*)

SATGONG (*Satgrama, the seven villages*).—A town in Bengal, formerly of some note, but now inconsiderable, situated on a small creek of the river Hooghly, about four miles to the N.W. of the town of Hooghly. In 1566, and probably later, this was a large trading city, in which Euro-

pean merchants had their factories for procuring the productions of Bengal; and at that date the Satgong river was capable of floating small vessels.—(*Rennell, &c.*)

Satimangalum.—A town in the northern district of Coimbatoor, forty-six miles N. by E. from the town of Coimbatoor; lat. 11° 31′ N., lon. 77° 16′ E. The fortress at this place is large, and constructed of cut stone, and in A.D. 1801 had a garrison, but contained few houses. The pettah or town is scattered over the plain at some distance, and at the above date contained only 600 houses. In the town and neighbourhood cotton goods are manufactured from the cotton raised in the surrounding country. Here is a temple of considerable repute dedicated to Vishnu.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Satpoora Mountains.—An extensive range of hills in the Deccan, situated between the Nerbudda and Tuptee, forming the southern boundary of the valley of the first, and the northern of the valley of the Tuptee. It extends along from near Surat, where it approaches the northern termination of the Western Ghauts to lat. 77° east, and is almost wholly occupied by the Bheel tribes. In appearance they differ from the Vindhyan mountains, having bold romantic outlines rising into lofty peaks, but in geological structure they are similar. The highest peak is about 2,500 feet above the level of the sea, and consists of amygdaloid and greenstone (which composes more than half the hill) and at the top basalt.—(*Jas. Fraser, Malcolm, &c.*)

Sattegaul.—A fortified village in the province of Coimbatoor, fifty-two miles travelling distance W. by S. from the city of Mysore. It stands near the banks of the Cavery, about three miles above the point where the river forks off to form the celebrated island of Sivana Samudra.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Saubermutty River.—A river in the province of Gujerat, that issues from the Dhaubur Lake, twenty miles north of Doongurpoor, and from thence flows in a southerly direction towards the gulf of Cambay, passing Ahmedabad on its route. Including windings, its course may be estimated at 200 miles.

Saugree.—A small independent state in Northern Hindostan, situated on the banks of the Sutuleje, between Bhujee and Koomharsein.

Saugur (*Sagara*).—A large town in the province of Malwa, seventy-four miles E.S.E. from Seronge; lat. 23° 48′ N., lon. 78° 47′ E. This place was very little known, although so near to the British frontier in Bundlecund, until taken possession of by the detachment under General Marshall in 1818, when it was discovered to be of considerable magnitude, and exhibited every appearance of an opulent and flourishing city, although situated in the heart of the Pindary country.

Saugur was originally ceded by the Peshwa, by the treaty of Poona, the manager of it, Benaick Row, having sheltered the Pindaries, and openly suffered levies to be made in the town for the Raja of Nagpoor. It surrendered without resistance, and soon after all the hills-forts and strong holds, sixteen in number, were given up without firing a shot, and the inhabitants in general appeared satisfied with the change. By taking actual possession of Saugur, the security of the adjacent country was not only increased, but, by superior management, the hereditary jaghiredar (Nana Govind Row of Calpee) received three times the sum ever before realized by him from the rents. The past receipts of this territory have been estimated at 6,98,000 rupees, out of which certain portions are to be paid to Nana Govind and Benaick Row. The entire occupation of this strong country has rendered it necessary to station part of the military force required to overawe Central Hindostan within the limits of the Saugur district.—(*The*

Marquis of Hastings, Prinsep, Public Journals, &c.)

SAUTCHUR (*Satghadam*).—A town in the Barramahal, 106 miles W. by S. from Madras; lat. 12° 57′ N., lon. 78° 48′ E. The situation of this place is picturesque, being surrounded by rocks covered in part with brushwood. The nabob of the Carnatic has a garden here, which is considered one of the best in the country; but like most Eastern gardens is totally devoid of taste or beauty. The trees are planted regularly, and the water is conducted in small channels to the root of each. In this neighbourhood the agave americana grows in great profusion. The surrounding hills are covered with large stones, among which grow many small trees and shrubs, and also a few tamarind and banyan trees of great age and size. The ghaut or pass beyond this place and approaching Mysore has been widened and levelled since the conquest of the province, and artillery can now ascend with little difficulty; but the tranquillity of the whole south of India, now under the Madras presidency, has rendered this road principally important for commercial purposes.

SAUTNEIR.—A town in the province of Gundwana, thirty-two miles N.N.E. from Ellichpoor; lat. 21° 36′ N., lon. 77° 55′ E.

SAVANORE.—See SHAHNOOR.

SAUWUR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, sixty miles S.E. from the city of Ajmeer; lat. 25° 11′ N., lon. 75° 5′ E.

SAVU ISLE.—An island twenty miles long in the Eastern Seas, subordinate to the Dutch factory at Coopang, on the island of Timor; lat. 10° 35′ S., sixty miles west of Rotti.

This island is of a stony, barren nature. Small quantities of maize, kachang, and cotton are raised, but in dry seasons they greatly depend on the sugar of the Lontar palm. Their wild and domestic animals, religion, and customs, are the same as on Timor. Wax, sandal-wood, and edible birds'-nests are exported, and during the Dutch old government, slaves: but this commerce was interdicted in 1812 by the British government. In 1820 the population was estimated at 5,000 persons, governed by four chiefs, who acknowledged the supremacy of the Dutch, and sometimes contributed military assistance in their Timorese wars. A Dutch interpreter is usually stationed here.—(*Malay Miscellanies, Thorn, &c.*)

SAWA.—A good sized town in the province of Ajmeer, about ten miles south from the fortress of Chitore. In 1824 it was surrounded by walls, and contained some handsome pagodas and two beautiful bowlies.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

SAWUN.—A town in the province of Malwa, six miles travelling distance from Munassa; lat. 24° 25′ N., lon. 75° 10′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia, and contained about 300 houses.

SAWUNTWARREE.—See WARREE.

SAYMBRUMBACUM (*Swayama Brahma.*)—A small town in the Carnatic, seventeen miles west from Madras; lat. 13° 5′ N., lon. 80° 4′ E. At this place there is a remarkable tank, eight miles in length by three in breadth, which has not been formed by excavation like those in Bengal, but by shutting up with an artificial bank an opening between two natural ridges of ground. In the dry season the water is let out in small portions for irrigation, and the quantity is said to be sufficient to supply the lands of thirty-two villages (should the rains fail), in which 5,000 persons are employed in agricultural pursuits.

SEALKOTE.—A town in the province of Lahore, seventy-two miles N. by E. from the city of Lahore; lat. 32° 35′ N., lon. 74° 20′ E. This was a place of considerable note early in the sixteenth century, being fre-

quently mentioned by the emperor Baber in his personal memoirs.

SECHANG ISLES *(or Dutch Islands)*.—A group of islands at the mouth of the Siam river, where vessels proceed to complete their water and get ready for sea. The larger isles are covered with wood, but some of the smaller are bare rocks. The two largest present vestiges of former cultivation, and on both a few miserable inhabitants are still to be seen; lat. 13° 12′ N., lon. 101° E.

SECUNDERABAD.—See HYDERABAD.

SECUNDERMALLY.—A spot in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, about four miles south from the city of Madura, believed by the natives of the vicinity to have been the burial-place of Alexander the Great.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SECUNDRA *(Alexandria)*.—A considerable walled village in the province of Delhi, thirty-two miles S.E. from the city of Delhi; 28° 28′ N., lon. 77° 33′ E. It stands in a wilderness of Dhak jungle, which extends in this quarter over a large tract of the Doab.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SECUNDRA.—A town in the province of Agra, seven miles north from the city of Agra, of which in former times it was probably a large suburb. It is now an uninhabited collection of ruins. Of these several noble gateways, part of the walls of a palace, a coss pillar, and various other architectural fragments, are still in a tolerable condition. The only remaining entire structure is the celebrated mausoleum of the emperor Acber, a vast pyramidical pile of arched galleries, tier over tier, with small cupola pavilions at intervals. It is certainly, in point of magnificence, the most remarkable of all the Mogul monuments, and scarcely yields to any in the elaborate details of its marble trellices and relievos, but it is fantastical in its design, and in the contrasted colours of its materials.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SECUNDRA.—A town in the province of Agra, forty-four miles N.E. from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 42′ N., lon. 78° 16′ E.

SEDASHEOGHUR *(Sedasivaghar)*.—A maritime town in the Canara province, forty-five miles N.N.W. from Onore; lat. 14° 51′ N., lon. 74° 9′ E.

SEEAH.—A large village in the province of Malwa, principality of Dewass, which in 1820 contained about 227 houses; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 76° 11′ E.

SEEASSEE ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, one of the Sooloo archipelago. It is a high island and well wooded, but cleared and inhabited in many places, and supplied with water. It yields many cowries.

SEEBAH *(Siva)*.—The capital of a small mountainous district in the province of Lahore, situated about sixty-five miles E.N.E. from Amritsir; lat. 31° 48′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E. It stands on the brink of a rivulet, and is fortified.

SEEBEEROO ISLE.—An island lying off the west coast of Sumatra, situated principally between the first and second degrees of south latitude, and the ninety-eighth and ninety-ninth of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at seventy miles, by ten the average breadth.

This island is inhabited by the Mantawey race, and the inhabitants both of Si Pora and the Poggy Isles consider it as their parent country; but they are, notwithstanding, generally engaged in hostilities. The inhabitants are distinguished only by some variety in the patterns with which their skins are tattooed. This island is rendered conspicuous from a distance by a volcanic mountain.—(*Marsden, &c.*)

SEEBGUNGE *(Sivaganj)*.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, eighty-four miles N.N.E. from Moorshedabad; lat. 25° 3′ N., lon. 89° 12′ E.

SEEDLY *(Sinduli)*.—A Gorkha fortress in Northern Hindostan, district of Muckwanpoor, to the possession

of which that people attach considerable importance, as commanding the terriani or low country; lat. 27° 9′ N., lon. 85° 55′ E., sixty-eight miles S.E. from Catmandoo.

Seedapoor.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, seventy miles S.E. from the city of Bejapoor; lat. 16° 28′ N., lon. 76° 44′ E.

Seedoura.—A considerable town in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, thirty-four miles N.W. from the town of Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 19′ N., lon. 77° 7′ E. Most of the houses here are built with brick, and the surrounding country is fertile and populous.—(*Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

Seehore.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, twenty-two miles west from the gulf of Cambay; lat. 21° 44′ N., lon. 72° 3′ E.

Seekree.—The capital of a little jaghiredar in the province of Delhi, who holds a small barony under the British government, under the larger one of Bullumghur; lat. 28° 20′ N., lon. 77° 9′ E., twenty-six miles south from Delhi.

Seekur Khuttree.—A small village in Northern Hindostan, principally inhabited by Brahmins, situated about 1,500 yards from the base of a hill four miles west from the fortress of Muckwanpoor; lat. 27° 27′ N., lon. 84° 57′ E.

Seelajan.—A town in Northern Hindostan, eleven miles S.W. from Rampoor, in Bussaher; lat. 31° 18′ N., lon. 77° 29′ E.

Seelone.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-four miles W. by S. from Punnah; lat. 24° 43′ N., lon. 79° 47′ E.

Seemleah.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 belonged to the Raja of Rutlam, and contained about 300 houses; lat. 22° 27′ N., lon. 75° 9′ E.

Seena River.—This river has its source about twenty miles W.N.W. from Ahmednuggur, from whence it flows in a south-easterly direction; and after a winding course of about 200 miles, falls into the Beema, the bulk of which it nearly doubles by the accession of its waters.

Seehore *(or Sehore)*.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty-two miles W. by S. from Bopaul; lat. 23° 15′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E. This place stands on the banks of the little river Roota Sein, and is surrounded by a large grove of mango and other trees. The soil is a black mould, but not much cultivated. In 1820 it belonged to the Nabob of Bopaul, and was the residence of the British agent for conducting the intercourse with that state. He also has charge of a number of petty chiefs and Grassias on the right bank of the Nerbudda and east of the Cali Sinde, besides managing the districts of Birseah and Shujawulpoor and superintending Omutwara.—(*Hunter, Malcolm, &c.*)

Seera.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, forty-five miles east from the town of Bhatneer; lat. 29° 28′ N., lon. 74° 38′ E.

Seeracot Temple.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, thirty-nine miles N.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 49′ N., lon. 80° 14′ E., 6,924 feet above the level of the sea.

Seerchee.—A small principality in the province of Gujerat, somewhere between Theraud and Sanjore, in 1820 claimed as tributary to Joudpoor, but the raja then maintained his independence.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Seerdhuna.—A town in the province of Delhi, the capital of the celebrated Somroo Begum; lat. 29°12′ N., lon. 77° 31′ E., forty-seven miles N.N.E. from Delhi.

This is the capital of a small principality twenty miles long by twelve in breadth, which with the town was assigned by Nudjiff Khan to Somroo, and on his death in 1776 was delivered over to the Begum Somroo, on condition of her keeping up a force of three battalions of infantry. Somroo's real name was Walter

Reinhiard, born of obscure parents in the electorate of Treves, from whence he entered early into the French service, taking the name of Summer, which the natives of Hindostan pronounce Somroo. He came afterwards to Bengal, and entered a Swiss corps in Calcutta, from which in eighteen days he deserted and fled to the upper provinces, where he served for some time as a private trooper in the cavalry of Sefdar Jung, nabob of Oude, and father to Shuja ud Dowlah. This service he also quitted, and after wandering about for some time, at length entered the service of Gregory, an Armenian, then high in favour with Cossim Ali, the nabob of Bengal, in which station in 1763 he massacred the English prisoners at Patna. He afterwards deserted Cossim Ali, and successively served Shuja ud Dowlah, the Jaut Raja Jowahir Singh, the Raja of Jeypoor, and again the Jaut Raja, whom he quitted once more for Nudjiff Khan, in whose service he died A.D. 1776. His corps of infantry was continued after his death in the name of his son, and a favourite concubine named Zeib ul Nissa Begum, but better known in Hindostan by the designation of Somroo Begum. When the tide of conquest brought her small principality (in 1803) within the limits of the British empire, she managed with such address, that by the conditions of the treaty her territories were exempted from the jurisdiction of the civil power, to the great obstruction of all executive measures of police. Her property in ready money, which is considerable, is mostly invested in the government funds, and until lately she resided mostly at Delhi, where she was protected by the British functionaries, and a great favourite with the emperor.

The town of Seerdhuna is a populous and thriving place, with a spacious new gunge, but without any other distinguishing feature. Near it is an extensive mud fort, containing the Begum's arsenal, and a large Hindostany house, where the commandant of her forces resides; the rest of the area being chiefly occupied by mud buildings. There is also another old citadel near the cantonments, of a smaller size, but more formidable construction, but now abandoned. In 1820 she began to feel the infirmities of age, being then about sixty-seven, and though she still retained her palace at Delhi, she resided mostly at her own capital, where she has a good house, built after the English fashion. In its rear are extensive ranges of stables for her stud, which is numerous, and to the north is a spacious entrenched cantonment for her battalions. In 1824 she had a Roman Catholic priest for her chaplain, and had began to build a handsome church at Seerdhuna. In 1827, along with the other chiefs of the province, she paid her respects to Lord Amherst at Delhi. Her district in respect to cultivation will probably bear a comparison with almost any tract of the same dimensions throughout Hindostan, and her internal management was noticed by the magistrate in 1816 as highly commendable. At that date it still continued exempted from the jurisdiction of the British civil and criminal courts. — (*Scott, Fullarton, Bishop Heber, Col. Franklin, Public MS. Documents, Ker, &c.*)

SEERPOOR (*Sirapura*). — A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Rajshahy, seventy-four miles N.E. from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 89° 20′ E.

SEERPOOR.—A considerable town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to Holcar; lat. 21° 20′ N., lon. 74° 55′ E., ninety miles west from Boorhanpoor.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

SEERWUL.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, twenty-eight miles S.E. from Poona; lat. 18° 8′ N., lon. 74° 10′ E.

SEETACOOND (*Sitacund, the pool of Sita*).—A remarkable hot well, with an adjacent village in the province of Bengal, district of Chittagong, situated about seventeen miles north from

Islamabad; lat. 22° 37′ N., lon. 91° 36′ E.

SEETAMOW *(or Seetamhow).* — A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 2,000 houses; lat. 24° 2′ N., lon. 75° 26′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah, which yields an annual revenue of 150,000 rupees to its raja, out of which a tribute of 60,000 rupees is paid to Sindia.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SEETAPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwa, nine miles distant from Omareah. In 1820 it contained about 250 houses, and belonged to the British government.

SEHAJPOOR *(or Sohagepoor).*—A town in the province of Candeish, thirty miles east from Hussingabad, reported to be the site of Sonitpura, to which Munjah, the uncle of the celebrated Bhoj Raj, removed the seat of government from Oojein or Dhar. Several figures with curled wigs and also the remains of a colossal statue furnished with similar decorations are still extant; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 78° 10′ E.—(*Erskine, &c.*)

SEHARA.—A village with a spacious serai in the province and district of Agra, situated about eight miles west from the city of Agra.

SEHDINE.—The chief town of a small district in Ava, situated on the Aeng road from Shembeghewn, on the Irawady to Arracan. During the British invasion it was burned to the ground by some banditti.—(*Trant, &c.*)

SEHORE.—See SEEORE.

SEHWAUN.—A town and district in the province of Sinde, intersected by the Indus, and situated between the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh degrees of north latitude. The soil is sandy and but little cultivated, although watered by one of the largest rivers in the world. The town of Sehwaun stands on the west bank of the Indus, in lat. 26° 11′ N., lon. 68° 7′ E., about sixty-five miles N.N.W. from Hyderabad, the capital of Sinde, near the confluence of an Afghanistan river named the Arul and the Indus, which here in the rainy season form a jeel or shallow lake.

SEIKS.—See LAHORE PROVINCE.

SEIK STATES.—Almost the whole northern quarter of the Delhi province is occupied by Seik principalities under the protection of the British government; for on the conquest of this portion of Hindostan, it was not deemed expedient to establish a judicial tribunal within the territories of these petty chiefs, the Bengal presidency having always been averse to any interference with their internal concerns and administration; the management of the police was consequently left entirely to themselves.

From the moment the Cis Sutulujian Seiks were released from all dread of Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore's encroachments, they began to entertain new fears and jealousies; for although they sought the British protection, they never wished for a stationary protective force, their aim being only to deter that chieftain from further incursions by the terror of the British name. Their first solicitations for protection were rejected and the detachment was marched to Ludeeanna, when some of them had not only recovered from their fears, but had greatly benefited by the bounty of Runjeet. By some we were considered uninvited, unexpected, and unwelcome guests; but they did not dare to refuse what they had once solicited, and as there were many who still dreaded the future visits of the Lahore Raja, Jodh Singh was the only chief who declined attending on the advance of Col. Ochterlony's brigade. By the British declaration of protection they obtained all they then desired, and would have wished to be left in every other respect at large, to prey on each other; but had the protecting force been withdrawn, Runjeet would soon have discovered pretexts for war, and while the British government would have been subjected to all the expense and danger, these chiefs would have enjoyed

all the immediate delights of rapine, plunder, and devastation, with a prospectus of indemnification for their services by grants of territory in the Punjab, when conquered by the British armies.

When all these enchanting visions were dissipated by the treaty concluded with Runjeet Singh, and a force stationed at Ludeeanna, at once to check his proceedings, and control their own feuds and predatory habits, they became apprehensive of something mysterious, especially as they perceived no benefit likely to accrue to the British government, heard no demand for tribute, or any exaction that could account for such unexampled disinterestedness. Unable to resolve the difficulty, they began to suspect that the power and the inclination to exercise it would not be long wanting, and that the protection of their country would terminate in its annexation to the British dominions.

Among all the lower classes of their subjects this consummation is earnestly looked for, and anxiously expected, and the suspicion of its approach is frequently exposed by the jealousy of the chiefs, who are yet constrained by the force of truth to acknowledge, that the occasional interference of the British government has proved a blessing. If there be still some who think otherwise, it is only such who, possessing the means, would gratify their inclinations to the commission of rapine and injustice, and it can inspire no very serious regret that persons of such dispositions are restrained from the indulgence of their evil passions. The coercive measures executed by the British government to compel the restitution of property to the lawful owner has only excited the grief of the aggressors, and met with little sympathy; while the justice and disinterestedness of the transaction has been openly and loudly applauded, or beheld with silent wonder.

The real state of the case is, that these proud and irascible chiefs are glad to appeal to the unbiassed arbitration of a third party, who, by the intervention of a salutary authority, soothes that pride which would have flown to arms in support of their own villages, although they knew their claims to be unreasonable, their cause unjust, and their means of resistance totally unable to cope with the superior power of their antagonist. There are some still hostile to British interference in the control of their administration, because, under the name of internal independence, they hope with impunity to rob their relations and dependents, and, without the risk of investigation, to annihilate the existence of all property unless belonging to themselves. From some of these petty chieftains on the south-east side of the Sutuleje, holding lands also on the opposite shore, Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore claimed feudal military assistance, which to a certain degree was acquiesced in by the British government, although their attendance might have been interdicted had it involved any political object. By some of these little potentates duties are levied on the rafts of timber floated down the Jumna, but the whole amount has never exceeded 5,000 rupees.

In A.D. 1814 Sir David Ochterlony made a tour among the petty Seik states under British protection, which he found tranquil and comparatively prosperous, exhibiting a striking contrast to their prior state of turbulence and distraction. For this they are indebted to the detachment stationed at Ludeeanna, which guards their chieftains from external violence, as well as from their own remorseless passions of private revenge and rancorous hatred, which would burst forth with redoubled fury were the presence of the coercive power withdrawn. In 1822 the British government formally declared its right, as lord paramount, to the succession of such chiefs in the protected Seik territories as may escheat from the want of legal heirs, no compensation whatever being derived from the expense and trouble of protecting them.—(*Sir D. Ochterlony, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SELANG ISLE.—A very small island lying off the south coast of Batchian, one of the Moluccas, with which it forms a good harbour; lat. 0° 48′ S., lon. 127° 40′ E.

SEMANAGUR.—A town in the province of Oude, forty-one miles north from Khyrabad; lat. 28° 4′ N., lon. 80° 40′ E.

SEMAO ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, situated off the south-western extremity of Timor, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. In length it may be estimated at twenty-five miles, by ten the average breadth. The passage between Simao and Timor is always navigable with deep water, and affords shelter to ships during the strength of the westerly monsoon. This island is of considerable extent, moderately elevated, and subordinate to the Dutch factory at Coopang on Timor. The principal articles of trade are wax, sandal-wood, edible birds'-nests, and, until prohibited by the British government, slaves.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

SEMARIAH.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 belonged to the British government, and contained about 1,000 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SEMLIA.—A small town in the province of Malwa, situated on the Sepra river, thirteen miles from Dewass; lat. 22°44′ N., lon. 76°8′ E. In 1820 it belonged to the raja of Dewass, and contained about 200 houses.

SEMROOL.—A small town in the province of Malwa, situated three miles north of a ghaut or pass of the same name, one of the principal roads from Indore, Oojein, &c. into the Deccan by Aseerghur, Boorhanpoor, &c. It belongs to Holcar, and in 1820 contained 200 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SENGAUNAH.—A town in the province of Agra, built of stone, and situated on the top of a hill of purplish rock about 600 feet high, 100 miles S.W. from Delhi; lat. 28°6′ N., lon. 75° 36′ E.

SENWAHO.—A town in the province of Malwa, seventy-three miles N.E. from Seronge; lat. 24° 31′ N., lon. 78° 48′ E.

SEOUNY.—A town in the province of Gundwana, seventy-four miles N.E. by N. from Nagpoor; lat. 22°3 N., lon. 79° 55′ E.

SERA (*Sira*).—A town and district in the Mysore raja's territories, ninety-two miles N. by E. from Seringapatam; lat. 13° 44′ N., lon. 76° 58′ E.

This place was first conquered by the Bejapoor Mahomedan dynasty in A.D. 1644, and was afterwards for a short time the seat of a Mussulmaun principality, which ruled a considerable extent of country, and was at its greatest prosperity under Dilawur Khan, immediately before it was conquered by Hyder, at which time, according to native report, it contained 50,000 houses. Since that period it suffered so many calamities from Tippoo and the Maharattas that in 1800 it scarcely contained 3,000 houses; but in 1819 it had benefited by the long tranquillity it had enjoyed from 1799. The principal street is long and wide, but the generality of the habitations are no better than huts, composed of red earth and roofed with tile. The Jumma Musjeed is a respectable edifice of hewn stone. Adjoining the town is the fort, of which the outer ditch and ramparts enclose a sort of pettah. The citadel within contains the remains of the palace, and is one of the most regular works in India of native construction, with a wet ditch and remarkably fine glacis. To the north of the fort is a noble reservoir for the irrigation of the adjacent lands.

The declination of the country, proceeding northwards from Bangalore, is very perceptible. At Sera, on the high ground near the Mahomedan mausoleum, the height, by barometrical measurement, has been estimated at 2,223 feet above the level of the sea; which, in the distance of eighty-four miles gives a

descent of about 500 feet. The climate here is such that there seldom falls as much rain as is required to raise a full crop of rice, the cultivation consisting principally of transplanted raggy, wheat, jola, and other articles that want less water. The soil about Sera contains common salt, and on that account is favourable to the growth of coco-nut trees, and the grand staple for exportation is copra, or dried kernel of the coco-nut. Plantations of betel-nut are also to be met with in the neighbourhood of Sera; in the uncultivated parts of the district the wild date is the prevailing tree.—(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, Heyne, Moor, &c.*)

SERAI.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, thirty miles south from Teary; lat. 24° 19′ N., lon. 78° 46′ E.

SERAJEGUNGE. — A considerable commercial mart in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, situated on the Jhinayi river, near its junction with the Jhinayi. It appears to have arisen since Major Rennell's survey in 1784, and is the greatest place of trade in this corner of Bengal.—(*F. Buchanan, D. Scott, &c.*)

SERAMPOOR (*Sri Rama pura*).—A Danish settlement in the province of Bengal, situated on the west side of the Hooghly river, about twelve miles above Calcutta; lat. 22° 45′ N., lon. 88° 26′ E. This place extends about a mile along the banks of the river, and has a pleasing effect viewed from the river, but the breadth is very small, and the whole is environed by the British territories. It is kept beautifully clean, and looks more like a European town than Calcutta or any of the neighbouring stations. It is without fortifications, and has only a small battery for saluting: yet it has been a very profitable settlement to the subjects of his Danish majesty, principally by the facilities it afforded to the British merchants of Calcutta to carry on a trade during the late war, under the cover of the Danish flag, for the use of which they paid a commission. Ships of burthen cannot come close up to the town on account of a shoal lower down, but labour in this province is so cheap, that the expense of conveying the goods by boats adds little to the prime cost. Here also insolvent debtors from Calcutta found an asylum from whence they could set their creditors at defiance, for even while the colony was in our possession on the breaking out of hostilities with Denmark, the king's writ did not extend to Serampoor.

This town is the head-quarters of the missionaries delegated from Europe for the purpose of converting the natives of Hindostan to the Christian religion, and here they have established a printing press, where the Scriptures have been published in an astonishing variety of languages. They also conduct a college for the education of native Christian youths, without excluding Hindoos or Mahomedans. The total revenues accruing from all sources between the first of May 1813 and the 30th of April 1814 amounted to 13,231 rupees.—(*Lord Valentia, Fullarton, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

SERAMPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Birboom, 107 miles west from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 6′ N., lon. 86° 24′ E.

SERAN. — A village in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna, about two marches or twenty-two miles higher up that river than Rampoor, the capital of Bussaher; lat. 31° 30′ N., lon. 77° 37′ E. It stands on a hill three miles from the banks of the Sutuleje, above which it is elevated 4,500 feet, and 7,280 above the sea. It is the summer residence of the Bussaher raja, whose house is high, and built in the Chinese fashion, the prevailing one in these mountainous tracts. Three miles distant, near the Sutuleje, are hot springs. Formerly human sacrifices were offered at a remarkable temple, sacred to Bhema Cali, the patroness of Bussaher. From hence there is a route leading to

Mantallar Garna, a Chinese town, but the roads are described as leading over ledges of rock projecting over tremendous depths, and almost impracticable even for foot passengers. —(*Public Journals, Capt. Hodgson, Gerards, &c.*)

SERANGANI ISLES.—A cluster of small islands in the Eastern seas, situated about five leagues from the southern extremity of Magindanao, and between the fifth and sixth degrees of north latitude. The largest, named Hummock Isle, is about thirty miles, and the next about twenty-five miles in circumference, and there is another of inferior extent, the principal islands being three in number.

Hummock Isle, on which the raja resides, is very fertile, and produces most of the tropical fruits, such as pine-apples, mangoes, sour oranges, limes, jacks, plantains, coco-nuts, and also rice, sugar-canes, sago, sweet potatoes, tobacco, Indian corn, and honey. Ships passing these isles carry on a brisk trade with the inhabitants for goats, poultry, and other refreshments, which are to be had in abundance. The principal article of export is bees'-wax.

The commodities most in request among the natives are white or printed cottons, such as loose gowns or jackets, coloured handkerchiefs, clasp knives, razors, and bar iron. Metal buttons are also much in demand, and a coat is soon stripped. The inhabitants speak the same language, and are of the same description as those on the sea-coast of Magindanao, being complete Malays, both in appearance and disposition. They have canoes and also larger boats, armed with small brass cannon, and like other natives of the Eastern isles, are much addicted to piracy. Their prows are covered with an awning of split bamboos, and can contain and conceal a great many men. The Dutch East-India Company claim a sovereignty over these islands, but do not appear to have exercised any of its functions, or established any settlement on them.—(*Capt. Hunter, Forrest, &c.*)

SERBAI.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles S. by W. from Banda; lat. 25° 13′ N., lon. 80° 15′ E.

SERINAGUR DISTRICT.—See GURWAL.

SERINAGUR (*sri nagara, the city of abundance*).—A town in Northern Hindostan, the former capital of the Gurwal province, thirty-eight miles E.N.E. from Hurdwar; lat. 30° 11′ N., lon. 78° 44′ E. This place occupies the centre of a valley, and was at one time three-fourths of a mile in length, and of an elliptical form; but since the encroachments of the Alacananda, the earthquake of 1803, and the Gorkha invasion, it has been in a very ruinous condition. The inhabitants consist chiefly of the descendants of emigrants from the low countries. The Alacananda river enters the valley near a village named Seerkote. Its course here is nearly east and west, and the breadth of the channel from bank to bank about 250 yards, but in the dry season the stream does not occupy above 100 yards. At the western extremity of the valley the current strikes with violence against the rocky base of a mountain, near to which it is crossed on a rope bridge or joola, suspended across the river, here eighty yards broad, from posts erected on each side.

On the opposite side of the Alacananda, at a village named Ranihaut, is a temple sacred to Raja Iswara, and principally inhabited by dancing women. The initiation into this society is performed by anointing the head with oil taken from the lamp placed before the altar, by which act they make a formal abjuration of their parents and kindred, devoting their future lives to prostitution. Among the items of eleemosynary donations distributed to Brahmins and others by the old governments, and continued under the present regime by the British, the principal in amount

is 512 rupees, which is given to various tribes of religious mendicants, who frequent a melah or fair, held annually near to Serinagur.—(*Raper, Hardwicke, Trail, &c.*)

SERINGAPATAM (*Sri Ranga Patana*).—A city in the province of Mysore, of which it was the capital during the short-lived Mahomedan dynasty of Hyder; lat. 12° 25′ N., lon. 76° 45′ E. This city is placed at the upper end of an island surrounded by the Cavery, which is here a large and rapid river, having a very extensive channel, impeded by rocks and fragments of granite. By actual survey, the island of Seringapatam has been found to be about four miles in length, by one and a half in breadth across the middle part, where the ground also is highest, as it from thence slopes to the north. The country in the neighbourhood rises gradually on both sides of the river, and is for some distance finely watered by canals, the water of which is forced in by dams thrown across the river and formed of granite blocks, the whole of prodigious strength, and executed at a vast expense. Average height of the barometer 27,568, consequent elevation above the level of the sea 2,412 feet.

In the Mysore province Seringapatam is usually called Patana or the city, but the name by which it is distinguished in the maps is a corruption of Sri Ranga, an epithet of Vishnu, the preserving power. This fortified town occupies about a mile at the west end of the island, and is an immense, unfinished, injudicious mass of building. In constructing the works Tippoo retained the long strait walls and square bastions of the Hindoos, while his glacis was in many parts so high and steep as to shelter the assailants. They are all now much dilapidated. On an eminence in the centre of the island, at some distance from the city, stands a large, busy, and handsome suburb, with wide streets lined with trees, and intersecting each other at right angles, called Sheher Ganjam, which has risen on the ruins of the old cantonments destroyed by Tippoo previous to the siege. In the gardens adjoining, amidst a groupe of buildings consisting of four choultries and a mosque, is the mausoleum of Hyder, where rest all that was royal of his dynasty, consisting of Hyder himself, his wife, and Tippoo. The palace in the city is an extensive pile of buildings, surrounded by a high and massy wall of stone and mud, the whole patched, irregular, unseemly, and going rapidly to decay. One portion was converted after the capture to an hospital, a second to private quarters for officers, and the whole variously appropriated; but the garrison having been latterly reduced to a single battalion, almost the whole is now (1820) neglected and untenanted.

The principal bazar of Seringapatam, extending from the Bangalore gate, is straight and spacious, and there is a good road under the ramparts encircling the city; but the other streets have a very indifferent appearance, and on the whole Seringapatam must be denounced as a very mean capital. The houses are white-washed externally, have tiled roofs, and generally a low second story. The public buildings besides the palace, are few and paltry; the most striking are the great mosque and the pagoda of Sri Ranga. Another Hindoo temple was converted by Tippoo into an arsenal, and is still used for that purpose. A manufactory of gun carriages (the only one under the Madras presidency, and established here from the vicinity of the teak forests) occupies the site of the ancient palace of the Mysore rajas. The Dowlet Baugh, Tippoo's favourite residence, has been transformed to an English house, and all its uncouth frescoes have been obliterated, except a representation of Col. Baillie's defeat, and some other sketches on the wall of the eastern veranda.

During the administration of the Dewan Purneah, a bridge was constructed across the northern branch

of the Cavery, which, however rude and deficient in principle, is certainly an extraordinary native work. It traverses the river in a winding direction, is entirely composed of granite, and without arches, being supported by three rows, each of sixty-seven square pillars, each pillar formed of a single mass of granite, fitted into the rock below, connected together by cross beams of the same material, and the road resting on slabs of granite thrown across above. An old structure of the same sort, across the southern arm of the river, serves the double purpose of a bridge and an aqueduct to convey the water of the little Cavery to the city and island.

On the night of the 6th February 1792, Lord Cornwallis attacked Tippoo's fortified camp, under the walls of Seringapatam, within a bound hedge strengthened by redoubts, and amounting to 40,000 infantry, besides a large body of cavalry. For this attack he selected 2,800 Europeans and 5,900 native infantry, the whole without artillery. The attack was completely successful, and eighty guns were taken, with the loss of 535 men killed and wounded. The sultan's loss in the battle is said to have been 4,000, but the desertion was so great after the overthrow that his army was reduced in number at least 20,000. On the 24th of February preliminaries of peace were settled with Tippoo, who relinquished half his dominions, and paid three crores and thirty lacks of rupees (about £3,500,000 sterling) in bullion. Lord Cornwallis gave up to the troops the whole of his share of prize money, amounting to £47,244, and General Medows (next in command) his, amounting to £14,997. On this occasion the force brought against the Mysore sovereign was one of the most formidable ever seen in Hindostan. On the 16th March 1792 the British armies above the ghauts amounted in all to 11,000 Europeans, 31,600 disciplined natives, and 190 pieces of ordnance. The Maharatta's, the Nizam's, the Raja of Travancore's, and the Coorg raja's forces, amounted to 40,000 men, of whom 30,000 were cavalry. Towards the conclusion of the siege, allowing four camp followers to each soldier, the number of persons, of all descriptions, attached to the camps of the confederates exceeded 400,000.

The bullocks attached to the army and employed in bringing up supplies amounted to half a million, requiring one man to every three bullocks; there were also several hundred elephants and many thousand camels, with their attendants. Every horse in the cavalry and in the army, besides the trooper or rider, has two attendants, one who cleans and takes care of him, the other the grass-cutter who provides his forage. The palanquin and litter carriers for the sick are a numerous class. Field officers, including the people who carry or have charge of their baggage, cannot have less than forty, captains twenty, and subalterns ten servants. The soldiers have a cook to each mess, and the sepoys, most of whom are married, have many of them, as well as the followers, their families in camp. The bazar people or merchants, their servants, and adventurers who follow the army for the chance of plunder, are a great many. Early in the war some of the sepoys were prevailed on to send back their families, and arrangements were made to reduce the number of followers; but these measures tended to create desertion, and increase distress. While marching there are no towns to be depended on for supplies, and an army in India not only carries with it most of the means of subsistence for several months, but many articles of merchandize; the scene altogether resembling more the migration of a nation guarded by troops, than the advance of an army to subdue an enemy.

In 1799, war being again declared, Seringapatam was stormed on the 4th of May, about two o'clock in the afternoon, by the army under General Harris; the garrison amounted to about 8,000 men, of whom the greater part were slain. Tippoo was

killed under a gateway, probably by a party of the twelfth regiment of foot, for this important event was not actually known until some time after it had happened. No individual ever appeared to claim the honour of having slain the sultan, nor was it ever discovered who had obtained possession of his valuable necklace of pearls. Among the arrangements consequent to the surrender of Seringapatam, the British government obtained permanent possession of the island, which was at first kept strongly garrisoned; but its importance as a military position having gradually died away, and its climate become remarkably unhealthy, a large proportion of the troops were withdrawn. In A.D. 1800 the population of the city was estimated at 20,815 persons, and that of the suburbs at 11,080; but so rapid a decrease had subsequently taken place, that in 1820 the population within the walls was reduced to less than 10,000 persons.

Travelling distance from Madras 290 miles; from Hyderabad 406; from Poona 525; from Bombay 622; from Nagpoor 727; from Calcutta 1,170; and from Delhi 1,321 miles. —(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, Dirom, Lord Valentia, Rennell, &c.*)

SERINGHAM *(Sri Rangam)*.—Opposite to the town of Trichinopoly, in the Carnatic province, the Cavery separates into two branches, and forms the island of Seringham. About thirteen miles to the east of the point of separation the branches again approach, but the northern one is at this spot twenty feet lower than the southern. The northern branch is permitted to run waste to the sea; but the southern, which retains the name of the Cavery, is led by a variety of channels to irrigate the province of Tanjore. Near the east end of the Seringham island an immense mound, called the Annicut, is formed to prevent the waters of the Cavery from descending into the Coleroon.

The Seringham pagoda is situated about a mile from the western extremity of the island, at a small distance from the bank of the Coleroon. It is composed of seven square enclosures, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high and four feet thick. These enclosures are 350 feet distant from each other, and each has four large gates with a high tower, which are placed in the middle of each side of the enclosure, and opposite to the four cardinal points. The outward wall is nearly four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the south is ornamented with pillars, several of which are single stones thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter. Those that form the roof are still larger, and had this gateway been completed with a pyramidical top of corresponding dimensions, it would have greatly surpassed every work of the kind in Hindostan. The several enclosures of the pagoda are laid out in regular streets, some of them remarkable for neatness, and filled with choultries, small temples, shops, and the dwellings of Brahmins. Europeans are not permitted to penetrate beyond the fourth septum; but the arch of the great choultry of a thousand pillars, which they are at liberty to ascend, affords a glimpse of the remaining areas, and commands a full view of the gilt and gaudy cupola of the temple of Sri Rangam. The palanquin and umbrella of solid gold, apparel studded with rich gems, and other wealth belonging to the divinity, are also brought out and ostentatiously displayed to strangers.

About half a mile from Seringham, and nearer the Cavery, is another pagoda with only one enclosure, named Jambekisma, between which and the one above described a spacious tank, with choultries, intervenes, and the whole island is rich in cultivation and well-wooded. Pilgrims from all quarters of Hindostan resort to Seringham for absolution, and none come without an offering of value. Here, as in all great pagodas, the Brahmins live in a state of subordination that knows no resistance, and slumber in voluptuousness that

feels no want. This state of negative happines does not appear to have been disturbed until the siege of Trichinopoly, which begun about A.D. 1751, at which period the French and their allies took possession of the island and pagoda of Seringham, but they never attempted to violate the inner enclosures of the temple, or expose this Hindoo sanctuary to greater pollutions than were absolutely necessary. In 1752 the French army was compelled to surrender to Major Lawrence, at which time it consisted of thirty-five commissioned officers, 725 battalion men bearing arms, besides sixty sick and wounded in the hospital, and 2,000 sepoys. Their artillery was four thirteen-inch mortars, eight cohorns, two petards, thirty-one pieces of cannon, besides a great quantity of stores and ammunition. At present the allowances made by the British government for the support of the pagoda and its establishment, amount to 15,600 pagodas per annum.—(*Orme, Fullarton, Wilks, &c.*)

SERONGE *(corrupted from Sheregunge).*—A large open town in the province of Malwa, which from its size and population might be denominated a city; lat. 24° 5′ N., lon. 77° 41′ E. The country for many miles to the south of Seronge is an open plain, the country generally is of a superior description, and the climate, on account of its elevation, more temperate that its latitude would indicate. During the cold season the thermometer is frequently seen under the freezing point, when natural ice is formed in the shallow pools, but is speedily dissolved after sunrise. Seronge appears at one time to have enjoyed a higher state of prosperity than it at present exhibits, yet its condition is still much superior to what might have been expected from its having been so many years the head of Ameer Khan's Pindary government, and from its situation exposed to incessant ravages. The bazars are strong, being built of stone, on an elevation of four feet above the street. A large caravanserai still remains, having a double row of pillars and walled all round.

In 1809 a British army from the Madras presidency, when in pursuit of Ameer Khan, took possession of Seronge, but only proceeded five miles further north, it being found impossible to overtake him. This formerly predatory chief possesses Seronge in Malwa, and Tonk on the Banass river in Rajpootana, which were confirmed to him in consequence of his relinquishing all his other innumerable claims. Latterly he has also abandoned his migratory life, assumed the title of nabob, and shewn a disposition to fix his residence in the neighbourhood of Tonk, where in 1820 he was employed building a palace on the Banass river. In 1819 Ameer Khan's gross revenue amounted to six lacks of rupees per annum, but it was expected to reach ten lacks in 1824. He usually resides in that portion of his territories between Boondee and Jeypoor, managing Seronge through the medium of an agent, but he has no root in the soil where he has planted himself, and little influence beyond his own estates. His descendants, however, will probably acquire both, and the establishment of Mahomedans in this quarter of Hindostan, from political considerations, is rather desirable. Travelling distance from Oujein, 165 miles; from Agra, 253; from Benares, 389; from Bombay, 595; from Calcutta by Benares, 849; and from Nagpoor, 295 miles.—(*Twelfth Register, Prinsep, Fullarton, Malcolm, Rennell, Heyne, &c.*)

SEROOR.—The cantonment of the British troops stationed in the province of Aurungabad, and former dominions of the ex-Peshwa Bajerow; lat. 18° 40′ N., lon. 74° 35′ E., forty miles N.E. of Poona.

This great military station extends in a long straggling line between the base of Piquet hill, which rises abruptly behind it, and the stream of the Goor Nuddy, and its north-eastern boundary is about a mile dis-

tant from the old village of Seroor. The main street is exceedingly spacious, and lined on both sides with the bungalows of the officers, which have generally handsome gardens attached, enclosed by milk-plant hedges, and well shaded by cypresses and fruit-trees. Since the total subjugation of the Maharatta country, the importance of this position in a military point of view has greatly diminished. In 1820 the force cantoned amounted to only two battalions of infantry, one regiment of cavalry, and the Bombay corps of horse artillery. It was then in contemplation to abandon Seroor altogether (since carried into execution), and divide the field force in this quarter between the cantonments of Poona and Solapoor.

In the burial-ground at Seroor, the remains of the late Colonel Wallace, well known for his long and eminent services in the Deccan, are interred. It is a remarkable proof of the respect with which his memory is cherished by the native soldiery, as well as of the pliant nature of Hindoo superstition, that whenever the cantonment is threatened with any thing in the shape of a public disaster (such as a dearth of grain in the bazar, &c.), Wallace's ghost is believed by the sepoys to become perturbed, and to walk abroad. On this portentous event they are in the habit of resorting to his tomb, where they perform poojah (worship) to his manes, which, as they suppose, has the double effect of restoring quiet to his spirit, and averting the impending calamity. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Seroor.—A large village in the province of Bejapoor, S.E. from Bagulcot, which in 1820 contained 680 houses, and 2,314 persons.

Serya *(surya, the sun)*.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the gulf of Cutch, forty miles E. by N. from Juggeth point; lat. 29° 19′ N., lon. 69° 44′ E.

Seundah.—A town in the province of Allahabad, belonging to Ditteah, situated on the east bank of the Sinde river, twenty-three miles N.N.W. from Sumpter; lat. 26° 10′ N., lon. 78° 44′ E.

Seurdah.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-one miles N. by W. from Callinjer: lat. 25° 21′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E.

Seva Samudra.—See Sivana Samudra.

Seven Islands—A cluster of very small islands in the Eastern seas, extending along the coast of Banca island, from which they are separated by a navigable channel; lat. 1° 10′ S., lon. 105° 20′ E.

Severndroog *(suvarna durga, the golden fortress)*.—A small rocky isle on the Concan coast, province of Bejapoor, within cannon-shot of the continent; lat. 17° 46′ N., lon. 73° 15′ E. During the reign of Sahoo Raja, sovereign of all the Maharattas, Conajee Angria, the pirate, revolted; and having seduced one-half of the fleet to follow his fortunes, he with it took and destroyed the remainder. He afterwards established his headquarters at this place, where he and his posterity governed until 1756, when it was taken by Commodore James, in the Protector frigate, with scarcely any assistance from the Maharatta besieging army. This place and the neighbouring station of Dapoolee being situated on an elevated portion of the coast, enjoy a fine breeze, and have been selected as the site of a convalescent hospital for the European garrison of Bombay.—(*Orme, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Severndroog.—A strong hill-fort in the Mysore raja's territories, twenty miles W. by S. from Bangalore; lat. 12° 53′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E. This fort is surrounded by a forest of natural wood or jungle several miles in depth, thickened with clumps of planted bamboos, to render it impenetrable. It is impossible to invest or blockade Severndroog closely, the rock forming a base of eight or ten miles in circumference, which with the

jungle and lesser hills that surround it include a circle of twenty miles. From this base it rises, a prodigious mass of granite above half a mile in perpendicular height, and nearly precipitous, its naked surface being only diversified by two shrubs that have crept up its lower surface, or inserted themselves into its crevices, by its lines of fortifications, and by the temple (reduced by distance to the size of a sentry box) which crowns its summit.

This huge mountain has further the advantage of being divided above by a chasm which separates the upper part into two hills, called by the natives, from a slight difference of colour, the white and black forts, each with their defences forming two citadels, and capable of being maintained independent of the lower works that cover the connecting ridge. This stupendous fort, so difficult to approach, is no less famed for its pestilential atmosphere, occasioned by the surrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful size and strength.

Severndroog was besieged during the first war with Tippoo in 1791, when, after breaching the wall, the troops advanced to the storm, Lord Cornwallis in person superintending the attack. On the appearance of the Europeans advancing, the garrison, being seized with an unaccountable panic, fled, and the breach was carried without meeting or even overtaking the enemy. The main body of the latter endeavoured to gain the western hill, which had they effected, the siege must have re-commenced; but a small party of the fifty-second and seventy-first regiments pressed so hard upon them, that they entered the different barriers along with them, and gained possession of the top of the mountain. Above 100 of the enemy were killed on the western hill, and many fell down the precipices in attempting to escape from the assailants. Thus in less than one hour, in open day, this fortress, hitherto deemed impregnable, was stormed without the loss of a man, only one private soldier having been wounded during the assault. A small guard of the Mysore raja's sepoys is now (1820) the only garrison. The pettah, situated under the eastern brow of the ridge which unites the two great eminences, has become a mere wilderness, and destitute of any inhabitants except a few Brahmins who officiate at two temples.—(*Dirom, Fullarton, &c.*)

Sew River.—A river in the province of Gundwana which rises in Wyerghur, and after traversing the western part of Choteesghur, joins the Mahanuddy about ten miles north-east of Lohari. It is navigable beyond Simgah from July until February, and partially throughout the whole year, the water being collected in deep extensive pools.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

Sewad *(or Swat)*.—An Afghan district in the Cabul province, situated about the thirty-fourth degree of north latitude, and in part bounded by the Indus. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this district is described as follows:—"Circar Sewad comprehends three territories, *viz.* Bembher, Sewad, and Bijore. The Sewad division measures in length forty, and in breadth from five to fifteen coss. On the east lies Bembher, on the north Kinore and Cashgur, on the south Beckram, and on the west Bijore. In the mountains of this country are several passes. The summer and winter are temperate; the mountains are covered with snow, but in the plains it melts in three or four days after the fall. Here are spring, autumn, and periodical rains as in Hindostan Both the spring and autumn harvests are plentiful. Here all the flowers of Tartary and Hindostan, violets, narcissuses, and a variety of fruits grow wild. The whole of this circar consists of hills and wilds, and is inhabited by the Yusephzeis."

The valley of Sewad or Swat opens on the plain of Peshawer, and is intersected throughout its whole

extent by the river Lundyé, separating upper from lower Sewad. The first is sixty miles long, and from ten to sixteen broad; the second is of equal length, but broader, and of greater fertility. The residence of the chief of Upper Sewad is named Deer, and contains about 500 houses. Lower Sewad is well peopled, and the chief place Allahdund a considerable town. Sewad is separated from Beneer by steep hills, thinly inhabited by Baubees, an inconsiderable tribe of Afghans. On the lower hills of this district the snow lies for four months of the year. Few trees are seen on the tops of the hills, but their sides are covered with forests of pine, oak, and wild olive. Lower down are many little valleys, watered by clear and beautiful streams, with an excellent climate. The sides of these hills also afford a profusion of European fruits and flowers, which are found wild in an infinite variety. In the midst of the principal valley is the river Swat, watering a rich but narrow plain, which yields two harvests, and produces most sorts of grain, especially rice, which is very abundant. Besides cultivated fruit-trees many mulberry and plane-trees are seen here.

The original inhabitants of this territory, named Swatees, appear to have been of Indian derivation, and are supposed to have formerly possessed a kingdom extending from the Hydaspes to Jellalabad. These were gradually restricted by the Afghan tribes, and Sewad and Beneer, their last seats, about the conclusion of the fifteenth century subdued by the Yusephzeis, yet they are still numerous in this quarter. The Afghan tribes of Sewad have always been singularly turbulent, and yielded little more than a nominal obedience to any sovereign; but being subdivided into a great number of distinct clans, without any common head, they have been much less formidable to their neighbours than they might otherwise have been. They were chastised on account of their predatory habits by Acber; in 1670 by Aurenzebe; and in 1739 by Nadir Shah, while on his return from Hindostan. The emperor Baber, in his memoirs, says that sultan Weiss was king of Sewad, which extended from the river Sewad to Baramula, east of the Indus, and at that date the chief entrance into Cashmere.—(*Elphinstone, Abul Fazel, Leyden, the Emperor Baber, &c.*)

Sewan *(or Alligunge)*.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Sarun, sixty-six miles N.W. from Patna; lat. 26° 11′ N., lon. 84° 2′ E. In this vicinity an inferior sort of crockery is made, in imitation of Staffordshire-ware, from a species of black potter's marle.

Sewdah.—A town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to Holcar; lat. 21° 9′ N., lon. 75° 58′ E., twenty-three miles S.W. from Boorhanpoor. This place lies low, the houses are of mud, and the streets narrow and dirty, but the ghurry is high, and overlooks the town. The surrounding country is a fine plain, which in 1816 was well cultivated, although then liable to much annoyance from Bheels and Pindaries. Feizpoor is another town to the north-west, from which circumstance it is sometimes named Feizpoor Sewdah.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Sewee.—A flat dry plain of hardened clay, in Afghanistan, in some parts relieved by streams from the hills, and round the town of Sewee well cultivated. It is inhabited by the Cauker tribe of Pannees, and by their inveterate enemies, the Baloochies. In modern times this tract had been little explored, but in A.D. 1582 Abul Fazel relates, that "near to Sewee there is a lake, two days' journey in length, called Munjoor, upon the surface of which fishermen have formed artificial floating islands, where they reside and carry on their occupations."

Sewistan.—A large province of Baloochistan, consisting of a stupendous range of mountains, extending southwards from Candahar, and only accessible by passes of extreme diffi-

culty. It is divided into the districts of Jhalawan to the south and Saharawan to the north, which includes Nooshky in the desert, and Moostung and Shal to the northward. Each of these sections is subdivided into tuks, or zillahs, furnishing quotas of troops, but paying no tribute. The climate of Sewistan is dry, and from its great elevation excessively cold in winter. —(*Christie, Kinneir, &c.*)

Sewry Narrain.—A town in the province of Gundwana, fifty miles S.E. from Ruttunpoor; lat. 21° 58′ N., lon. 83° 8′ E. The Mahanuddy is navigable as far as its junction with the Sew river beyond Sewry Narrain, from July to February, after which it becomes too shallow. Goods are conveyed from hence to Ryepoor and Choteesghur in small canoes. This part of India and the course of the Mahanuddy are as yet (1827) but imperfectly delineated in the best maps.

Seyer Isles.—A cluster of small islands lying off the west coast of the Malay peninsula, about half a degree north of Junk Ceylon; lat. 8° 43′ N., lon. 97° 48′ E., and distant about twenty-eight miles from the main land, which is visible. The largest isle is about five miles in length by one in breadth. When visited by the Siam mission in 1821 a general silence prevailed, the dense woods and rocky shore being neither inhabited or frequented by birds or beasts. This is the more extraordinary, as even the universal enemy, man, was absent, while vegetables, fruits, palms, yams, and other roots grew spontaneously. — (*Finlayson, &c.*)

Seyrah.—A town in the province of Gujerat, sixty-five miles E. from Ahmedabad; lat. 22° 58′ N., lon. 73° 42′ E.

Seysuna.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, twenty-four miles south from Kotah; lat. 24° 52′ N., lon. 75° 37′ E.

Shah Nehr Canal.—The upper part of this canal is said to have been cut by the emperor Shah Jehan to bring the water of the Jumna to his garden at Padshah Mahal, a hunting seat in the district of Saharunpoor, close under the hills. The excavator of the rest of the canal is unknown, but it is supposed to have been repaired as far as Ghousghur by Zabeta Khan, the nabob of Saharunpoor, and it now assumes his name. It was formerly fed by a branch of the Jumna, which flowed under Padshah Mahal; but the Boora, or Old Jumna, deserted its bed which fed this canal. After that period a zemindar, Fyzoola Khan, of Raypoor, dug a cut, and brought water again into the bed of the old Jumna.—(*General Kyd, Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

Shahabad.—A town in the province of Delhi, 101 miles N. by W. from the city of Delhi; lat. 30° 8′ N., lon. 77° 6′ E.

Shahabad.—A large district in the province of Bahar, situated about the twenty-fifth degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the course of the Ganges; on the south and east by that of the Sone; and on the west by Chunar and the province of Allahabad. It extends from the river Sone to the Caramnassa, and from the banks of the Ganges to the mountains of Rhotas. In A.D. 1784 the original circar. of Shahabad contained only 1,869 square miles; but it has since been greatly augmented by incorporations from the adjacent territories.

This district is extremely fertile, and in general populous; but towards the south-west it still contains many tracts of waste land. In 1801 the proportion the uncultivated land bore to the cultivated was estimated by the collector at one to four, exclusive of the hills that form the southern boundary; but the accuracy of many of the returns made to government at that time cannot be depended on, not being the result of actual investigation, but in most cases of mere conjecture. By the diligence of the revenue officers some lands have been discovered not included in the revenue settlement; and in 1822 the

ryotwar system was introduced into several mahals, instead of bringing them to public sale.

The most valuable articles of agricultural produce are opium, tobacco, cotton, sugar, indigo, and hemp, and the cultivation of all (especially of sugar) has for many years past been gradually increasing. The district contains no brick or mud private forts, nor are there any schools or seminaries within its limits where the Hindoo or Mahomedan laws are taught. Shahabad is pre-eminent in Bengal and Bahar for the excellence of its roads, a distinction mainly to be attributed to a salutary reservation in the original settlement with the zemindars, of a certain annual per centage for their repair, whereby all doubt was removed as to the party on whom the burthen of such repairs was to fall. In 1801, in consequence of instructions from the Marquis Wellesley (the governor-general) the board of revenue in Bengal circulated various queries on statistical subjects to the different collectors under that presidency. The result of their returns tended to establish the fact, that Shahabad contained two millions of inhabitants, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to twenty Hindoos. It has always been remarkable for the great number of suttees (burnings of widows) that take place annually within its limits, and for the attachment of the inhabitants to the practice.—(*J. Deane, Fullarton, Colebrooke, &c.*)

Shahabad.—A considerable town, with the remains of fortifications and many large houses, in the province of Oude, thirty miles N.E. from Furruckabad; lat. 27° 40′ N., lon. 79° 50′ E.

Shahderah.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Meerut, situated near the east bank of the river Jumna, opposite to the city of Delhi. This is a spacious and pleasant town, with wide streets, containing a large proportion of brick houses.

Shahjehanpoor. — A town in Northern Hindostan, the residence of Raja Sunkar Chund, and in 1820 the capital of Kangra.—(*Moorcroft, &c.*)

Shahjehanpoor.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 was the head of a district belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia; lat. 23° 26′ N., lon. 76° 20′ E. The name is derived from the emperor Shah Jehan, its founder. In progress of time it was assigned to Dowlet Row Sindia's mother, but was subsequently given to Meena Bhye, with whom it still remains. A colony of Borahs (Mahomedan merchants and pedlars) are settled here, who have imported European improvements in the construction and furnishing of their houses, from the sea-coast of Gujerat.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Shahjehanpoor.—A town in the province of Lahore, eight miles N.W. from Nadone; lat. 31° 53′ N., lon. 76° 30′ E.

Shahjehanpoor.—A large picturesque town, with a ruined castle and several mosques, in the province of Delhi, to which a fiscal subdivision of the enormous district of Bareily, under a collector, is attached; lat. 27° 52′ N., lon. 79° 48′ E., fifty miles S.E. from Bareily. In 1813 this town was esteemed more wealthy, and nearly as populous as Bareily, so that probably an allowance of 50,000 inhabitants does not exceed the reality. In 1813 the division of Shahjehanpoor contained 3,856,187 cucha (small) begas in cultivation, and was assessed with a jumma of 16,24,235 rupees, presenting an average rate of less than seven annas per bega. It further contained 2,907,430 begas fit for cultivation, and 4,010,411 entirely waste. The revenue of the prior year had been realized, with a balance of less than one per cent. The great and rapid augmentation of the available resources in this and the adjacent district of Bareily might, under ordinary circumstances, have excited apprehensions as to their stability; but the success and facility with which the revenues were actually realized during the years 1813

and 1814, were calculated to dissipate any apprehensions that might have been entertained on the subject. —(*Deane, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SHAHPOOR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, division of Azimnagur, situated on a fine plain about two miles south from the military station of Belgaum.

SHAHRAH.—A town in the province of Candeish, pergunnah of Candwah, which in 1820 belonged to Sindia, and contained about 300 houses; lat. 21° 50′ N., lon. 76° 32′ E.

SHAWA.—A village in the province of Gundwana, division of Bustar, and territories of Nagpoor, situated near the source of the Mahanuddy river, 2,117 feet above the level of the sea.

SHAHZADABAD.—A large town in the province and district of Allahabad, about thirty-four miles N.W. from the city of Allahabad. At this place there is one of the most spacious serais for the accommodation of travellers to be found in the upper provinces.

SHAHZADPOOR.—A town in the province of Oude, thirty-eight miles S.E. from Fyzabad; lat. 26° 24′ N., lon. 82° 27′ E.

SHAHNOOR *(named also Savanore and Sivanur)*.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, forty miles S.E. from Darwar; lat. 14° 59′ N., lon. 75° 26′ E. This place is at present much decayed, having no buildings of elegance except the palaces, and these are in ruins. It is enclosed by a wall and ditch, but is not a place of strength. On the outside of the city wall to the northward are several long streets of houses for the most part uninhabited, and to the southward is a lake of water. Shahnoor was conquered from the Hindoos by the Bhamenee sovereigns of the Deccan so early as A.D. 1397, but at a later period became the capital of a small Patan state, giving the title of nabob to its hereditary possessor. Abdul Hakim Khan, the seventh lineal descendant, who reigned in 1792, had been tributary to Tippoo since 1784, when he abjured his allegiance, and accepted the protection of the Maharattas. After this defection, Tippoo's army, during a predatory incursion, destroyed the palaces and public buildings, blew up and razed the strong fortress of Bancapoor, and devastated the whole country, of which he retained possession until 1792, when it was wrested from him and restored to the nabob, under the superintendence of the Maharattas.

This territory was transferred to the Peshwa by the British government, in exchange for an equivalent in Bundelcund. About the time when Goklah, one of the southern jaghiredars, obtained possession of Shahnoor, there was a very general disturbance and usurpation (called by the natives Kautkace) throughout the country, and every man helped himself to whatever place he had troops enough to capture. The family of the Shahnoor nabob had an allowance from the Peshwa out of the revenues, but it was so extremely ill paid that in 1804 they were reduced to the utmost wretchedness, were covered with rags, or almost naked, and compelled to subsist on the plants they picked up in the fields. A remonstrance was in consequence presented by Mr. Strachey, the British agent, for arranging the possessions of the southern jaghiredars, to the then court of Poona, which had the effect of ensuring greater punctuality in the future discharge of the nabob's miserable pittance. In 1821 the British police had a concurrent jurisdiction in the territories of the Shahnoor nabob.—(*Moor, MSS., Ferishta, &c.*)

SHAIRGHUR *(Sherherghar)*. — A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, twenty miles north from the town of Bareily; lat. 28° 20′ N., lon. 79° 45′ E.

SHAIYA *(or Chaiya)*.—A Siamese town on the west side of the gulf of Siam, situated on the road from Le-

gor to Bankok, about lat. 9° 57′ N. In 1826 it contained about 2,000 inhabitants, besides a number of Chinese, and was defended by a stockade. There is much rice cultivated in the neighbouring country, and many junk loads annually exported. —(*Capt. Burney, Harris, Leal, &c. &c.*)

Shamlee.—A town in the Delhi province, fifty-three miles north from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 27′ N., lon. 77° 8′ E. This is a place about two miles in circumference, and contains many handsome houses, with a large bazar, and the remains of a mint. The streets intersect each other at right angles, and have separate gates at their entrances, which are shut at night for the security of the inhabitants.—(*G. Thomas, &c.*)

THE SHAN COUNTRY,

(or Laos).

A central region of India beyond the Ganges, which occupies the space between Ava, Siam, and China, occupied by various tribes generally in subjection to these empires, according to contiguity. Every where to the north and east Ava is bounded by districts inhabited by a people whom the Birmans call Shan, but who name themselves T'hay. From the Burmese word Shan coming to us through the Portuguese orthography is no doubt derived Siam, the name given by Europeans to the most distinguished nation of the race. Another branch of the same tribe is the Tay Lown or Casi Shan. East from this people on both sides of the Irawady, between the Birman and the Chinese, and extending from thence far south between the Ava dominions, and the Saluen river, is a numerous people governed by many hereditary chiefs named zabuas or chobwas, and tributary to Ava. By the Burmese this last branch is called Mrelap Shan, or Shanwa, and the sovereign of Ava among his titles usually assumes that of sovereign of the nine provinces of the Shan (Koshan-pri) meaning the nine chief provinces that pay him tribute.

There is little doubt that this is the same country with that mentioned in the universal history under the name of Kosangpyi, there described as lying west from the northern Laos, and having to its west the great forest of Pahimpan, probably the mountainous ridge that rises on the banks of the Irawady, half way between Bhanmo and Ava, on the frontiers of China, runs south inclining a little to the east, until it approaches the sea at Martaban, and separates the country of the Mranmas or Burmese from that of the Shans. The ridge is visible from Amarapura, seen from whence it appears to be between four and five thousand feet high, but as several rivers appear to pass through it, it cannot be considered an uninterrupted boundary.

To the N.N.W. of Siam is a considerable space covered with hills and jungles, and occupied by the tribe called Lowa or Lawa, many of whom are scattered among the forests of the countries possessed by the Shan or T'hay races. Dr. Francis Buchanan is of opinion these Lawa are the original inhabitants of the country, and that mixed with the Chinese and other kindred races, they form the Shan nation. These Shans still retain their original appellation of Lowa or Lawa, which is no doubt the origin of the names Lao, Law, Lawha, Lau, or Laho, applied by various authorities to the same people, and the Lao Shan of the Burmese is most probably the Northern Lao, or Laho of universal history, the capital of which about the middle of the seventeenth century was called Leng by the Chinese. The words Shan and Siam are supposed to be mere modifications of the same sounds.

The interior of this country having rarely been visited by any Europeans, we remain scantily informed respecting its topography and population, which last, however, may be presumed to be both more numerous and more civilized than had been anticipated.

A great annual fair is held at Rangoon, to which the Shans resort in great numbers. They come by the route of Tongho, making in all a journey of about forty days, transporting their goods on bullocks, and on the horses named by Europeans Pegu ponies. They bring down cane and palm sugar, the ground-nut, lac, fine lacquered-ware, gold and silver in ingots, supposed to be procured chiefly from Yunan in China. Besides these they bring coarse raw China silk, sometimes dyed; lead, the produce of their own country; and a small quantity of copper in sticks like that of Japan. By the above route a trade might be opened with Yunan and the south-western provinces of China, the northern ones of Siam, and the independent ones of the Shan country, as from the fair of 1826 the Shans carried off a considerable quantity of British cotton goods and woollens.

The Shan country is said to abound in metals, most of the iron used in Ava being supplied from the great mountain Poupa, which lies somewhere on the eastern side of the Irawady, near the lat. of 21° N. The passion of the Burmese for alchemy brings many of the Lao ores into the bazar of their capital, specimens of which were purchased and sent home by the members of the British embassy in 1826. These consisted principally of iron, silver, lead, copper, and antimony. The Shans possess the art of smelting all these metals, and bring them down in their metallic state. The silver mines are situated about twelve days' journey north-east of Bhanmo towards the Chinese frontier. The Shan tribes subject to Siam pay their tribute in stick-lac, benzoin, and other articles, besides which they send down cotton and rafts of teak-timber to Bankok. With respect to their imports, besides the goods above enumerated it seems probable that all the inhabitants of the interior of India beyond the Ganges are dependent for salt on that manufactured along the coasts of Pegu and Martaban.

In appearance and dress the Shans differ materially from the Burmese, their features much more resembling those of the Chinese, while one authority asserts that in industry, ingenuity, and enterprize, they surpass the Burmese, Peguers, and Siamese. In 1826 a man completely covered with hair was found in the Shan country on the banks of the Saluen river, and sent to Ava as a curiosity, where he was seen by the embassy in 1826. The hair was shaggy and about eight inches long, but on the breast and shoulders only four or five inches. His teeth were defective, the grinders being entirely wanting. He married a Birman woman, and had two daughters, one covered with hair like her father, only white and fair; the elder resembled her mother. Both father and child were perfectly formed, and excepting their hairy covering handsome. With respect to the Shan religion, it is in all probability some modification of the widely-extended doctrines of Buddha. Naug-roong is an ancient and highly venerated Buddhist sanctuary and place of pilgrimage in North Laos, to which the pious still resort with caravans and merchandise. Some of the tribes whose habitations are permanent have idols, which are reported to be the same as those of Tunquin, but it is said the veneration for their ancestors so prevalent among the Chinese does not exist here.

The Laos or Shan language has never been cultivated by Europeans; very few of whom, besides Alexander de Rhodes, have penetrated the country. According to Kœmpfer, the Shan nation do not differ much either in language or writing from the Siamese, except that they are unable to pronounce the letters R and L, and Dr. Leyden thought that their language bears the same relation to the T'hay or Siamese that the Arracanese does to the Birman, and that with the T'hay J'hay it accords more fully than with the T'hay Proper. The Laos language is represented as abounding in books, especially translations from the Bali; and if the antiquity of the nation can be depended on, they must be extremely interest-

ing on account of the central situation of the country; but our information as yet is too defective to admit of our forming any decided opinion on the subject.

When the exigence of war compelled the Burmese to muster from all their resources, the tributary Shan tribes bordering on China were called on to furnish their quotas. An armed contingent of 15,000 men was in consequence embodied, disciplined and despatched, headed by their chiefs or chobwas, and marched towards Amarapura from these remote regions. Unacquainted with the events of the war, and filled with extravagant notions of the power and invincible courage of the Burmese their conquerors, they readily obeyed the mandate in hopes of sharing the spoils that would no doubt accrue on the destruction of the rash strangers, whose presence contaminated the soil of Ava.

Eight thousand of these Shans formed part of the Burmese army when it approached Prome in November 1825, and having never before encountered Europeans, were expected to fight with much greater spirit and resolution than the often defeated soldiers of Ava. In addition to the numerous chobwas and petty chiefs, these Shan levies were accompanied by three young and handsome women of high rank, who were believed by their superstitious countrymen to be prophetesses and invulnerable. These Amazons, dressed in martial costume, rode about among the Shan troops, inspiring them with courage and confidence in their supernatural assistance. The result, however, was a most complete discomfiture, although many of the grey-headed chobwas fought to the last, refusing quarter. One of these ladies received a bullet in the breast, and was carried by the British soldiers to a cottage in the rear, where she expired. Another was observed flying on horseback along with the defeated remains of her people, but was knocked off her horse by a shrapnell, uncertain whether killed or not. The surviving Shans fled pursued and massacred by their Burmese allies, to escape whom they penetrated the most deadly jungles, so that numbers who had escaped from sword and gun, perished by disease and famine, few of the 15,000 ever revisiting their native country. Such was the inauspicious commencement of the first intercourse between the remote Shans and the British nation.—(*F. Buchanan, Snodgrass, Crawfurd, Trant, Low, Leyden, de Bissachere, &c.*)

Shaoor.—A small town containing several Hindoo temples in the province of Coimbatoor, forty-one miles travelling distance N.N.W. from Devaporam.

Shapoorah.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about seventy miles S.S.E. from the city of Ajmeer. Viewed externally, Shapoorah has the appearance of strength and importance, but within it presents a scene of poverty and decay.

Shapuree.—An island in the province of Bengal, situated at the extreme point of the strip of main-land forming the southern frontier of the Chittagong district, and only separated from it by a shallow channel, which is gradually filling up, while the main stream of the Nauf river, here above two miles broad, flows between it and the eastern or Arracan bank of that river. In A.D. 1822, the Burmese, who then possessed Arracan, set up a claim to this worthless muddy isle, and persevered so incessantly in their encroachments that a war ensued, which brought a British army within forty-five miles of Amarapoora, and ended with the loss of five provinces, torrents of blood, and a crore of rupees on the part of the Burmese. —(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Shawgur *(Shah ghar)*.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the north bank of the Godavery, forty-two miles S.E. from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 23′ N., lon. 75° 56′ E.

SHEEALLY.—A small town in the Southern Carnatic, district of Tanjore, situated about twenty miles travelling distance north by west from Tranquebar, and distinguished by the phenomenon of a little inn, kept by a native, in a miserable bungalow.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SHEEBGUNGE (*Siva ganj*).—A large and flourishing village in the province of Bengal, district of Rajshahy, eligibly situated on the banks of the Caratoya river. This is a place of considerable commerce, and in point of size and population only inferior to Nattore and Bauleah.

SHEERGOTTA (*shir ghat, the lion pass*).—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, eighty miles south by west from Patna; lat. 24° 32′ N., lon. 84° 55′ E. This is a populous place agreeably situated on a rising ground, surrounded by the river Moorhur, which here separates for a short space into two branches. Here are the gaol and other public buildings; and here the judge and magistrate of the zillah holds his court during six months of the year, when Chittra is reckoned unhealthy. To the east of Sheergotta there are the remains of an old mud fort, and there are several Mahomedan edifices in the neighbourhood.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SHEGUL.—A Chinese fortress and garrison in Tibet, situated on the east side of the Arun river, which penetrates the Himalaya, and ultimately, along with the waters of the Cosi, joins the Ganges in the province of Bengal; lat. 28° 24′ N., lon. 87° 12′ E.

SHEIKHPOOR (*Shaikhpura*). — A town in the province and district of Bahar, situated close to the base of the Sheikhpoor range of hills, through which there is an easy pass here to the southward and westward; lat. 25° 8′ N., lon. 85° 54′ E.

SHEIKPOORA.—A town in the province of Delhi, five miles S.S.E. from Saharumpoor; lat. 29° 55′ N., lon. 77° 32′ E.

SHEKARPOOR.—A district in Afghanistan, formerly subject to the Cabul sovereign, situated west of the Indus, between the twenty-seventh and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude. To the east it is bounded by the Indus; on the west by Baloochistan; to the north it has the Mozaurees; and to the south the province of Sinde, of which it is sometimes described as a section. Adjacent to the Indus the soil is fertile, but at any considerable distance dry, sterile, and unproductive. The peasantry are Juts, Baloochies, and a few Hindoos; the revenue paid to the king, who in 1809 kept here a hakim and a few troops, was about three lacks of rupees, The Mozaurees, who dwell to the north of Shekarpoor, are a tribe of Baloochies, inhabiting a woody and ill-cultivated country. Their political condition is that of internal anarchy; on the highways they are robbers, on the Indus pirates, and, with reference to their neighbours, depredators.

The town of Shekarpoor stands in lat. 27° 36′ N., lon. 69° 18′ E., is of considerable size, and surrounded by a mud wall, without any ditch. The inhabitants are almost all Hindoos, termed Shekarpoories, and speak a peculiar dialect of Hindostany distinguished by that name. There are many rich bankers here, and a considerable trade is kept up with Rajpootana, Sinde, Candahar, and Peshawer. Shekarpoor bankers are to be found all over the Afghan dominions, and even in the remote towns of Turkistan, but they do not venture to carry their wives or female relations to these uncivilized countries. The number of resident Afghans has been estimated at only 200 families. —(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

SHEKAWUTTY.—This division of Rajpootana is situated about the twenty-eighth degree of north latitude, and is said to have received its name from a predatory tribe of Arabs. It extends about eighty miles from north to south, and rather less from east to west, but its limits

on all sides are extremely ill-defined, formerly fluctuating annually with political circumstances. To the north it is bounded by the British district of Hurrianna; on the south by those of the Jeypoor raja; to the east it has Hurrianna and territories subject to the Macherry raja; and to the west the dominions of Joudpoor and Bicanere. The surface of Shekawutty presents to the view a sandy plain, scattered with rocky hills, ill-watered, and badly cultivated; yet it contains several considerable towns, the most noted of which are Seekur, Futtehpoor, Khetri, and Gooda. The sands are interspersed with tufts of hug-grass, the baubool, the kurreel or caper tree, and a bush named phoke, which last is said to be peculiar to the great Ajmeer desert and its borders. The country is naturally strong, being encircled by hills, and protected by ghauts or passes, the principal of which are Ketree, Kundeela, Oudepoor, and Babhye. Near the last is a copper mine.

The Shekawutty chiefs are a military class, feudatories to the raja of Jeypoor, by whose assistance they were enabled at no very remote period to wrest their present possessions from the Kyankaries, a tribe of converted Hindoos. In 1805 the principal Shekawutty chiefs were, 1st, Row Bishen Singh, of Munohurpoor, the nominal head of all: in returning the respectful salute of the other chiefs he brings his hand no higher than his breast, which marks his superiority. 2d, Meer Singh Dass, and Pertaub Singh, rajas of Kundeela and Rewarra, then imprisoned at Jeypoor. 3d, Ubhee Singh, and various other leaders of the Khetri caste. Ubhee Singh held the pergunnah of Katpole from the British government for 20,000 rupees per annum.

Bhuil is a good sized town in the Shekawutty country, about eighteen miles W. by S. of Khiro. In consequence of its being situated on the high road from the Punjab to Bicanere, its inhabitants were accustomed to extort heavy contributions from the merchants, and frequently plundered them altogether. The Shekawutty troops are mostly cavalry. In 1813 a party of them of the Silhedee tribe made a predatory incursion to the Hurrianna near Behil, and plundered the country. Although nominally the subjects of the Jeypoor raja, they pay very little attention to his mandates, in consequence of which the British government directed that in future such freebooters should be hotly pursued into the country that gave them an asylum, and destroyed wherever they could be found. In 1818 the Shekawutties, after an unusual interval of tranquillity (four years), again became troublesome, when a detachment was marched into their country, where it captured three walled towns and levelled many of their mud forts; but the tribes and their chiefs still continued refractory, and rejected all subordination to their feudal superior, the Jeypoor raja. — (*Metcalfe, Lieut. White, Elphinstone, &c.*)

SHEKOABAD (*Shacoabad, the abode of magnificence*).—A town in the province of Agra, thirty-seven miles distant from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 6′ N., lon. 78° 27′ E. This place derives its name from Dara (Darius) Sheko, the eldest and unfortunate son of the emperor Shah Jehan, who, in the contest for empire with Aurengzebe, was defeated, hunted down like a wild beast, and at last murdered.

SHEMBEGHEWN.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, situated four miles inland from the Irawady, 100 miles east from Arracan, and 135 S.W. from the city of Ava; lat. 20° 30′ N., lon. 94°30′ E. This is a town of considerable importance, as from hence the Aeng road branches off over the mountains into Arracan, which was marched by a detachment under Lieut. Trant in 1826. Before the war Shembeghewn contained 3,000 inhabitants, but in March 1826, when passed by the British army, not one habitation remained, having been burned to the ground by the Burmese

army while retreating. The surrounding country is an open plain, fertile, well irrigated, and highly cultivated. The Chalain river flows through the town, and during the rains is swelled to a considerable size. — (*Trant, &c.*)

SHEM DEO TEMPLE.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, eight miles E. by N. from Almora; lat. 29° 37′ N., lon. 79° 49′ E., 6,760 feet above the level of the sea.

SHEOPOOR *(Sivapura).*—A town in the province of Ajmeer, 104 miles S.E. from Jeypoor; lat. 25° 41′ N., lon. 76° 33′ E. This is the capital of a small principality possessed by a relation of the Jeypoor raja's.

SHEPOORY *(Sivapuri).* — A town in the province of Agra, thirty-five miles S.W. from Narwar; lat. 25°25′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E. To the south of this place the country is level and tolerably well cultivated, but to the north-west it is extremely rugged and covered with jungle. The town itself is almost a collection of ruins.

SHERIBON *(or Cheribon).*—A district in the island of Java, remarkable for its fertility, and the excellent quality of the coffee it produces. It fell under European influence so early as A.D. 1666, and, like Bantam prior to the arrival of the English, had been in a state of constant insurrection, which added to an unwholesome climate, had diminished the importance of the city of Sheribon. Indeed, owing to mismanagement this district never yielded to the Dutch a profit adequate to its great resources; especially of indigo, coffee, and teak timber. The sultans of Sheribon, being descended from one of the earliest Arabian propagators of the Mahomedan religion in Java, have always been much venerated by the pious of that faith. An insurrection broke out here in 1800, which was not suppressed until after the conquest of the island by the British, but no disturbance occurred during the subsequent period of the British occupation. According to a census taken in 1815 Sheribon contained a population of 216,001 persons, of which number 2,343 were Chinese, on an area of 1,334 square miles.

The town of Sheribon stands in lat. 6° 48′ S., lon. 108° 37′ E., 198 miles E.S.E. from Batavia by the post road. Owing to a pestilential distemper and other causes it has latterly greatly declined, having been deserted by a large proportion of its inhabitants. The great hill of Sheribon was formerly a volcano, and still occasionaly sends forth smoke. At a little distance from the town is a mosque and mausoleum erected to the memory of Sheikh ibn Molana, which is going rapidly to decay, although still highly venerated by the Mahomedans.—(*Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

SHEVAGUNGA *(Sivaganga).* — A small fortified town in the Mysore province, about twenty-six miles N.W. from Bangalore. This place stands on the northern verge of the tract of wooded hills which stretch across Mysore between Bangalore and Seringapatam. The conical mountain of Shevagunga (the highest in the province) is a conspicuous object at a distance of thirty miles and upwards.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SHEVAGUNGA. — A poligar town and zemindary in the southern Carnatic, sixty-nine miles S.S.W. from Tanjore; lat. 9° 55′ N., lon. 78° 32′ E. The general character of this estate is that of a dry country, having a light soil. It is much overgrown with jungle, and though flat has no cotton ground. The paddy grounds are confined to the left of the Vyar, which is finely cultivated; but there are few tanks, and scarcely any hills. Among the native Hindoo chiefs, the poligar dogs of this vicinity are held in high veneration, although the animal throughout India generally is reckoned unclean, and treated with unmerited contempt.

Shevagunga was ruled by rannys or

princesses until about sixty years ago, when two brothers named Murdoo, of low caste, usurped the government, under the title of dewans or prime ministers, and subsequently, on the death of the ranny, having mounted the throne, assumed the ancient title of the Pandian rajas. They were expelled by the nabob of Arcot, with the assistance of British troops, but he afterwards reinstated them. Continuing refractory, they were attacked by a British detachment, and defended themselves in the fortress of Callacoil for five months, but it being at last taken by storm, the Murdoos escaped into the neighbouring jungles, but were afterwards taken and hanged. As no female heir existed of the old Shevagunga family, the country was given to a relation of the late ranny.

The town, or rather village of Shevagunga, is large, open, and clean, agreeably situated, and much embellished by noble clumps of bamboos, and a profusion of other trees. In 1820, with the exception of the raja's premises, which contained an upper-roomed house, inhabited by the Tukt ke Baeta, or husband of the eldest daughter, and heiress to the zemindary, the place did not contain a dwelling above the rank of a hut. In the quarter inhabited by the Brahmins these are of a larger size, and neatly whitewashed. There is a mosque in Shevagunga of a respectable appearance, and at the above date a new pagoda was building; but although so long the capital of a genuine Hindoo principality, it did not then possess any ancient Hindoo edifice of the slightest note. In 1822 the population of the Shevagunga zemindary, according to the returns made to the Madras presidency by the collectors, was 186,903 persons. —(*Medical Reports, Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SHEVAGURRY *(Sivaghari)*. — A town in the Carnatic province, ninety miles N. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 35′ N., lon. 78° 32′ E.

SHEVELPATORE.—A town in the Carnatic province, 103 miles N. by E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 35′ N., lon. 77° 49′ E.

SHIALKUR *(or Shalkur)*.—A fort north of the true Himalaya, but belonging to the principality of Bussaher, situated in Hangarang, on the borders of Lahdack, and banks of the river Li or Spiti, which joins the Sutuleje under the village of Namja, the last of Bussaher; lat. 32° N., lon. 78° 34′ E.; 10,272 feet above the level of the sea. It is built of loose stones and unburned bricks, with houses under the walls. Near to Shialkar the Spiti (which is here 10,113 feet above the level of the sea) is crossed on a good bridge of three fir trees planked over. Four miles to the north are hot wells in great repute.—(*Gerards, &c.*)

SHIKRAPOOR.—A village in the province of Aurungabad, division of Jooneer, situated on the high road from Poona to Seroor, and about five miles from the latter. This place stands on a rising ground, and is distinguished by a pagoda of stone, built in the general style of the temples of this part of the Deccan.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SHIPKE.—A large village in Chinese Tartary, district of Rongzhoong, under the deba or governor of Chaprung, a town, or rather a collection of huts, on the left bank of the Sutuleje; lat. 31° 49′ N., lon. 78° 44′ E. The houses here are built of stone with flat roofs, but are very much scattered; the gardens are hedged round with gooseberry bushes. The inhabitants are Tartars, but in dress and resemblance approach the Chinese, who are the sovereigns of the country. Shawl-wool is procured here, but the quality is inferior to that produced further east, and brought for sale to Gortope, which station is said to be eleven marches from Shipké. This is the highest point to which the British survey in 1823 had reached. The height of the bed of the Sutuleje

(which even in the dry season is here a considerable stream) is 9,267 feet above the level of the sea.

In October 1819 Lieut. Herbert crossed the Himalaya at the Gunass pass, and ascended the Sutuleje up to Shipké, a frontier valley in the Chinese territories. It was subsequently visited by Lieut. Gerard and his brother, who were presented by the Chinese functionaries with thirty pounds of flour, and an earnest request that they would quit the country.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, Gerards, &c.*)

SHOLAVANDEN. — A considerable town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, twelve miles N. from the town of Madura; lat. 10° 1′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E. It stands on the north bank of the Vyar or Vaygaroo river, and is composed of huts for the most part small and thatched, with many trees intermingled.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SHOECHATTAH.—A celebrated Buddhist temple among the hills that separate Arracan from Ava, situated on a high peak about a mile from the Aeng road. It is held in great veneration by the Buddhists, as containing two impressions of Gaudma's foot, one at the summit of the hill and the other at the bottom; they are railed in, and covered over with splendidly gilt temples; the phoongies or officiating priests live in the contiguous kioums or monasteries. Pilgrims resort to this sanctuary from all parts of the Burmese empire. The richer classes, paying a tax of from twenty to fifty rupees, are allowed to pray within the railing; the poor pray outside but pay no tax. The ascent to the temple is by means of a flight of steps, 970 in number, protected from the weather by a wooden roof, supported by numerous pillars. —(*Trant, &c.*)

SHOOMPHOON (*Choomphoon*). — A Siamese town on the western side of the gulf of Siam, which in 1826 was estimated to contain 7,000 inhabitants, and situated about lat. 10° 55′ N. At the above date the only brick building in the place was a temple. Formerly the Siamese troops destined to attack the Burmese at Mergui used to assemble here, and its phya or governor was delegated to watch the Tenasserim provinces; indeed since the conquest of these provinces by the Burmese Choomphoon has always been considered an important station, and strongly garrisoned. This partly accounts for the absence of Chinese, and the entire cessation of the valuable trade that formerly subsisted with the gulf of Siam *via* Choomphoon.—(*Capt. Burney, Harris, Leal, &c.*)

SHUJAWULPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the east bank of the Jaumneer river, sixty-three miles E.N.E. from the city of Oujein; lat. 23° 24′ N., lon. 76° 48′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah, which in 1820 yielded a revenue of 80,297 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SHUNDRABANDY (*Sundari vana*).—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, 106 miles N. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 38′ N., lon. 77° 48′ E.

SIAK.—A large principality on the north coast of the island of Sumatra, which in 1820 nominally extended from Tamiang, its most northern boundary, to Rantau, but it was then much intersected by territories possessed by independent chieftians. The great river of Siak has its source in the mountains of Menangcabow, and empties itself nearly opposite to Malacca. The shores are flat for a considerable distance up the country, and the whole of the soil is probably alluvial; but about 125 miles from its mouth, in lat. 1° 30′ N., lon. 102° 10′ E., where it is three-fourths of a mile broad, with a tide of twelve feet, there is the appearance of high land. According to native information it is navigable eight days' sail inland. The chief seaport is Campar.

In point of commercial importance Siak ranks first of all the petty states in this quarter, being situated on a

large river, and more central than the others. The exports are gold, camphor, gambir, rattans, tobacco, wax, sago, ivory, gahron, and silk cloths; the principal imports, opium, salt, woollens, and Madras piece goods. In A.D. 1818 a treaty of commerce similar to that with Lingen was negociated by Major Farquhar, who was received at Siak with the most friendly attention. British missions had previously visited this state, in 1806 under Capt. Scott, and in 1807 under Mr. Gurling. In 1820 the direct commerce of Siak, mostly with Malacca, Singapoor, and Penang, was still considerable, their gold and silk cloths having been long highly valued in the surrounding Malay countries. A considerable quantity of excellent timber was procured here for the construction of his Majesty's frigate Malacca, and the East-India Company's ship Inglis of 1,200 tons, both built at Penang. But with respect to its political condition, the Siak principality scarcely deserved the name of a government, the chiefs nominally subordinate to the sovereign being mostly successful pirates, who had assumed the titles of rajas and sultans, with little or no influence beyond their miserable villages, thinly scattered along a great extent of sea and river coast. About a century ago it was described as a powerful state. —(*Ibbetson, Anderson, &c.*)

SIAM.

(Syama, black.)

An ancient kindom of India beyond the Ganges, situated principally between the tenth and eighteenth degrees of north latitude. To the east it is bounded by the Cochin Chinese empire; to the north, including the tributary Shan country, it touches on the Chinese province of Yunan; towards the west it is bounded by the sea, the British provinces south of Rangoon, and the Burmese territories; and on the south by the Indian ocean, bay of Bengal, and the Malay peninsula, a large proportion of which is either directly subject or tributary to Siam. Viewed more in detail it consists of the following provinces:

1st. Siam Proper, or the T'hay country, which occupies principally the valley of the Menam River, together with the tracts watered by its various branches, from about lat. 13° to 20° north.

2nd. A large portion of Laos, or the Shan Country.

3d. A considerable section of Cambodia.

4th. A portion of Pegu, or the Mon Country.

5th. The peninsula of Malacca, from the head of the gulf down to lat. 7° N., where at Trang on the one side and Sungora on the other, they meet the Malay nation.

Along the east side of the gulf of Siam, the Siamese territories extend as far as the port of Athien or Cancao, belonging to the Cochin Chinese; but it is yet little known to Europeans. The principal seaports in this quarter are Chantibun, Tungyai, Pongsom, and Kampot; the first belongs to Siam, but the others to the Cochin Chinese portion of Cambodia. On the west side of the gulf the Siamese possess the districts of Chaiya, Phoomseeing, Choomphoon, Bantaphan, Mai, and Phriphri. Towards the bay of Bengal the Siamese territories are separated from the British conquered provinces south of Rangoon, by a mountainous ridge from 3,000 to 4,000 feet high, the intervention of which will reduce the chances of dispute and collision between the two governments. In former times this was considered debateable land, belonging neither to the Burmese nor the Siamese, each nation having troops stationed to catch trespassers when they ventured to cross them.

Siam proper may be described as a vast plain intersected by the Menam river, on the banks of which all the principal towns are situated. Like the province of Bengal, which it in many respects greatly resembles, it is subject to annual inundation, commencing in July, and when at their height overflowing the country, except

the artificial sites of villages, the rice stalks rising with the flood. Near the shores of the Menam the country is perfectly flat, and the soil alluvial, on which account after the rainy season is over many extensive morasses remain, and render the climate extremely pestilential to European constitutions, causing fluxes, dysenteries, and acute fevers. In the more elevated parts remote from the river the country is parched and dried up.

To the overflowing of the river, however, the land in its vicinity owes its extraordinary fertility, and is very productive of rice and other plants that require a redundant supply of moisture. Wheat is also raised on the higher grounds; but in respect to rice, Siam is probably the cheapest country in the world, the price being usually under two shillings per cwt., or ten Spanish dollars per coyan of 4,080 lbs. avoirdupois. Besides these the soil is capable of raising all the richest productions for which Bengal is celebrated; but little, comparatively, is cultivated, owing to the extortions and oppressions to which the peasantry are liable, and there is reason to believe that in the remote tracts a large proportion of the surface is still covered with primeval forests. The most valuable trees in these are teak, rosewood, eagle, and sapan-woods. The first is of the same quality as the Ava teak, and is floated down 300 miles from the interior to the capital, where it is applied to the construction of native junks, scarcely any being exported. The most valuable produce of these forests is the sapan-wood, which is both abundant and of an excellent quality, and forms all the dunnage and many of the cargoes of the Chinese. The aguilla or eagle wood is obtained among the islands that stud the eastern coast of the gulf of Siam, and aloe from some of the mountains inland, this precious perfume being almost the exclusive production of Siam and Cochin China. Most of the fruits of Hindostan thrive here, and there are besides the durian and mangosteen.

The staple articles of regular culture are rice, sugar, pepper, and tobacco. It is only seventy years since sugar was procured from the cane by the Chinese, who had in consequence additional privileges conferred on them, and the export now exceeds 80,000 peculs. Pepper is raised on the east side of the gulf, about the latitudes of eleven and twelve degrees north, and about 60,000 peculs are annually exported, mostly to China. From the same quarter gum, gamboge, and cardamoms are procured. Benzoin, produced chiefly in Laos or the Shan country, has of late years been exported in considerable quantities; the Chinese deal also extensively in hides, peltry, horns, bones, ivory, feathers, salt-fish, salt, and esculent birds'-nests. The hides consist principally of deer skins, besides those of buffaloes, elephants, and rhinoceroses; the peltry of tigers, leopard, otter, and cat skins. Rhinoceros' horns and deers' antlers are much esteemed by the Chinese for their medicinal virtues; the other bones are ground by that industrious people for manure to revive nearly exhausted soils. The stick-lac comes mostly from Laos and the northern parts, and large quantities of culinary salt are annually manufactured by the process of solar evaporation, constituting an essential branch of the inland trade, distributed by the Menam and its tributaries.

From Hindostan opium (about 200 chests), cotton goods, and a small quantity of embroidered silks are received; of European articles those most in demand are white cotton goods, cheap woollens, fire-arms, and glass-ware. Of the foreign trade that with China is incomparably of most value, and exists with every town and village along the coast, not being restricted to one port like that with Europeans. The most considerable intercourse is with Canton, Hainan Island, and Fokien, but a trade also subsists with the more northerly provinces of Chi Kiang and King-nan. The export to Cambodia and Cochin China is confined to the

ports of Cancao, and iron in all shapes is the chief commodity bartered. Hitherto the commerce with British India has been principally conducted from Bombay and Surat, the supercargoes most commonly being usually either Mahomedans or Parsees; bringing gold and silver, silk tissues, and printed cloths, carrying away in return benzoin, gamboge, eagle-wood, sapan-wood, and of late years sugar. In 1822 the native trade conducted exclusively by the Chinese amounted to 39,000 tons; the American trade was about 800 tons; that of British India about 1,000 tons; native and Malay trade about 1,000 tons; total 41,800 tons. The custom house taxes consist of imposts levied on goods imported and exported and tonnage duties, professing to be *ad valorem*, but rudely estimated, and varying with different nations. Hitherto the chief obstacle to the promotion of commerce with Siam has been the government itself standing forward as the principal, indeed the only merchant, which in fact created a virtual monopoly of all goods; but it is said that since the accession of his present Majesty to the throne he has abandoned all trade on his own account.

Until recently the Siamese were not in the habit of carrying on foreign commerce in their own vessels, but at present they make voyages to China, the European settlements in the straits of Malacca, and even to Bengal, Ceylon, and Bombay. In fact the maritime advantages of Ceylon are considerable, the navigation of the gulf being easy, and its chief port safe, with a good depth of water. On the west coast are the three ports of Sangora, Ligor, and Bandon; at the head of the gulf are those of the three estuaries of the Menam river, in which the tide reciprocates. The two western branches are shallow, but the eastern, on the banks of which Bankok stands, is navigable for all vessels not exceeding 250 tons. The eastern coast of the gulf is so studded with islands, separated by navigable channels and safe anchorage, that the whole space may be described as one continued harbour.

Inland Siam contains mines of iron, tin, copper, lead, and gold. Those of iron are said to be situated 200 miles north from the mouth of the river, where it is imperfectly smelted on the spot by the Chinese, and afterwards transported to the capital, where culinary and other vessels are fabricated, and form a considerable article of exportation to the archipelago, Cambodia, and Cochin China. A pecul of common bar-iron costs only four rupees. Tin is very generally diffused through some of the provinces, and about 500 tons are annually exported; but as it has not yet attracted the attention of the industrious Chinese, it probably can be had cheaper elsewhere. Salt is exported by the Dutch in considerable quantities from Siam to Batavia.

The domesticated animals of Siam are much the same as those of Hindostan, and in the jungles are tigers, elephants, and rhinoceroses, but there are not any jackals, rabbits, or hares. The cows give but little milk, which is mostly supplied by female buffaloes, neither have the natives learned the art of converting it into butter. The horses are a very inferior race, the best being imported from Java. In 1820 the sovereign of Siam possessed three white elephants, in that respect greatly surpassing his Burmese Majesty. This animal is an occasional variety of the species, and corectly speaking, is an albino, but with the organs of sight natural and sound, and no way averse to the effect of light, yet the iris is of a purely white colour. The hairs of the body are yellowish, but more scanty, finer, and shorter than that of common elephants. The colour and texture of the skin never appears entirely healthy, being deformed with glandular knobs, and the wrinkles of some acrid fluid which they secrete. They are usually small in size, but being well fed, are generally in good condition as to corpulence. The discovery of one is reckoned a most

important event, auspicious to the discoverer, and indicating prosperity to the nation. Albino buffaloes, deer, monkeys, and even porpoises, are not uncommon in Siam. Royal tigers abound, and their bones are exported by the Chinese, who are said to use them medicinally, at least they may be seen suspended in every apothecary's shop in Bankok. The sea and rivers swarm with excellent fish, upon which a large proportion of the lower classes subsist. In addition to these are fine lobsters, turtle of a good quality, and the mangoe-fish so much esteemed in Calcutta. The excellent sauce or seasoning named balachong is best procured here, where it is composed of dried shrimps, pepper, salt, and sea-weed, beaten together to the consistence of a tough paste, and then packed in jars for sale.

The constitution of Siam is a pure despotism, there being no hereditary nobility or legislative body of any description to control the king's actions. Indeed, so sacred is his character that his name must not be uttered, and is in fact known to few, even of the principal ministers. His body is supposed to be the seat of a soul in a highly advanced stage towards final absorption, and of course exempted from all bodily infirmities and evacuations. On one particular day, however, in order to conciliate deities superior to himself, he stands on one foot for an hour. All the inhabitants are liable to be called out for military service, so that very few standing troops are maintained. Their arms are matchlocks, always in a bad condition, spears, and creeses. They manufacture gunpowder, but it is of so inferior a quality that great quantities are imported. Their fortifications are stockades of trees and posts, surrounded by a ditch, but the natural obstacles presented to invaders by the jungles, morasses, numerous branches of rivers, and the general unhealthiness of the climate, soon thin the ranks of a hostile army. A small part of the taxes is levied in money, but much the greater part of the revenue has hitherto been received in kind, and realized by sale to foreign traders. In 1826, exclusive of extortions, they amounted to about £700,000 sterling. In 1750 the population was computed by the French missionaries at 1,900,000, but apparently without any foundation for the estimate. Unlike their neighbours the Malays, the Siamese have the utmost aversion to quit their homes, and consequently have made few maritime excursions, and planted no colonies. In 1826 the Chinese throughout the whole kingdom were estimated at 150,000 persons, Bankok alone containing above 30,000.

The Siamese nation, properly so called, consists of two races; the T'nay and the T'hay J'hay. They distinguish themselves by the appellation of T'hay; by the Burmese they are named Shan, and by the Chinese, Malays and Europeans, Siam. Their former capital was named Yuthia or Yoodra, from which circumstance by the Birmans of Ava they are frequently called Yoodras. In their manners and customs they greatly resemble the Burmese, but possess a still more extravagant share of national vanity and self-importance, approaching almost to insanity. Their ministers have long been notorious for their want of veracity, and Capt. Burney says that indefatigable lying forms an essential part of a Siamese statesman's duty, while they are equally incredulous of all other diplomatists.

The females of Siam are obliged to drudge in all laborious employments, for by them the woods are cleared, the earth cultivated, and the harvest reaped. Both males and females take as much pains to blacken their teeth as Europeans do to preserve them white. The men eradicate their beards, but allow their nails to lengthen like the Chinese. They are extremely gross feeders, in which they resemble all nations east of the Ganges. Among their edibles are rats, lizards, grasshoppers, and other insects, disgusting to the natives of Hindostan. Their houses are raised on posts, and are entered by a ladder

from the outside. Their temples are of a pyramidical form, generally a quadrangular one, of solid brick and timber, and differ from the sepulchral edifices of the Buddhists of Ceylon, named dagoba, which has a dome. Their statuary is quite characteristic of their religion, being confined to one single form of Buddha. Like all the other semi-barbarous nations in this quarter of the globe, their artists in gold are remarkably expert, and their fillagree-work singularly beautiful. They excel also in beating out gold leaf, of which a great deal is expended in adorning their temples and idols. The Chinese practitionaries, who are their chief physicians, have long been accustomed to the use of the bath in fever, and their system is, no cure no pay. The common people are so fond of singing that the missionaries found the best way of imprinting their precepts on their memories was to form them into short Latin songs, adapted to popular tunes. They have a great variety of musical instruments, but all disagreeable to a European ear; of the instrumental music of the latter they prefer the organ on account of the loudness of its melody, and were much attracted by it to the Roman Catholic churches. Time is still measured by vessels having a small hole perforated in the bottom, and placed in a tub of water, the construction of clocks being beyond their mechanical powers.

The T'hay language is that used by the Siamese, who in their own tongue assume the word T'hay as their national appellation. It appears to be in a great measure original, and is purely monosyllabic, but more powerfully accented than any of the other Indo-Chinese languages. Their alphabet consists of thirty-seven consonants, fourteen vowels, and six diphthongs, all variously modulated in sound and intonation. In this dialect they possess many songs, poems, and cheritras, or historical and mythological fables. Many of the Siamese princes have been celebrated for their poetic powers, and several of their historical and moral compositions are still preserved. In their romantic fictions the personages introduced, with the exception of Rama and the heroes of the Ramayuna, have seldom much affinity to those of the Brahmins. On the eastern side of the peninsula the Siamese prevails as far south as Patani, where it meets the Malay.

The national religion of Siam is that of Buddha, but all sects are tolerated. The abstract doctrines of the Siamese faith are singularly severe, and admit of no indulgencies whatever; but the bulk of the people are persuaded that rigid virtue and perfection are not prescribed to them, but only to their priests, on whose austerities and mortifications they rely for their own salvation. Their prohibition from the shedding of blood, so far from influencing their conduct to the side of mercy, appears to have the contrary effect, of all nations Buddhists being the most ferocious, cruel, and bloodthirsty, holding human life as nothing. Indeed, it has been justly observed that in whatever nations the pure Buddhist faith continues paramount, they hold a secondary rank, both in power and intellect, and never advance in either. At present the worship of Buddha is nearly universal from Bengal to Cochin-China. It appears identical with that of Ceylon, but differs from the Buddhism of Tartary, Hindostan, China, Japan, and Cochin-China. The leading doctrine is the transmigration of the soul, and Ni-ri-pan (Nirvana), or ultimate absorption into the essence of the deity. The above term signifies also all-extinguished, and the notion attached to it seems to be that of an imperturbable apathy, or condition of unmixed tranquil happiness, which can hardly be said to differ from eternal sleep. The priests have neither rank, influence, nor endowments, the sovereign being the real head of the church, and himself an incarnation of Buddha.

The first French missionaries reached Siam in A.D. 1662, after a most painful and arduous journey overland

to the bay of Bengal, where they embarked; but prior to this, the Christian religion had made some progress so early as 1621, through the medium of the Portuguese. The French mission was subsequently prosecuted with great zeal for more than a century, and was occasionally assisted by political emergencies, but no essential progress was ever made towards effecting the benevolent intentions of the missionaries.

The Siamese histories of the T'hay dynasty are said to detail with much minuteness and great exaggeration the events that have occurred in Siam, and the adjacent states and countries, during the last 1,000 years, and also the events prior to that period from the building of the city Maha Nakkon, but with less circumstantial detail. The records of the other dynasty, the T'hay J'hay, are supposed still to exist. Notwithstanding these documents, the Siamese nation was wholly unknown to Europe until the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope. The first traces of their authentic history began about A.D. 1550, and were acquired by adventurers of the Portuguese nation, who frequently acted as auxiliaries to the factions contending for the government. From the annals of the East-India Company it appears, that in 1684 their commerce sustained considerable losses by a Mr. Constantine Faulcon (a Cephalonian Greek), one of their inferior servants, who ran away in their debt, and obtained possession of their property by making presents to the King of Siam, whose prime minister he afterwards became.

In 1684 ambassadors were sent from Siam to Louis XIV., on board of an English vessel, in consequence of which Messrs. Cerberet and La Loubere were despatched on a diplomatic mission to Siam, where they arrived on the 27th of September 1687, and immediately solicited the king to embrace the Roman Catholic religion, in which request they were the more urgent, as an envoy had just arrived from the court of Persia, in order to convert him to the Mahomedan faith. The Siamese monarch declined both of the proposed conversions, but entered into a strict alliance with the French, whom he allowed to garrison Bankok and Mergui, the two most important havens in his dominions. This intimacy, however, was of short duration, for in 1688, by a sudden revolution, the king was dethroned and murdered, Faulcon executed, and the French expelled.

From this date Siam experienced much internal discord, and many sanguinary massacres, which seem to be the natural condition of such communities, periods of tranquillity being merely exceptions to the general rule. It remained, however, exempt from any serious external annoyance until 1754, when in consequence of the conquest of Pegu, the Birman dominions came in contact with those of Siam. War immediately ensued, and with a few short intervals has continued ever since. In 1767 the Burmese, under Alompra, captured Yuthia, the then capital, pillaged and burned it, extirpated the royal family, carried many of the inhabitants into slavery, and left the country almost a wilderness. In 1769 Piatak, the son of a wealthy China-man, collected some troops and expelled the Burmese from all their conquests except the provinces now belonging to the British along the bay of Bengal, and subsequently extended his dominions by the subjugation of several petty Malay states, and the conquest of Chantibun in Cambodia. Becoming insane about 1782, he was dethroned and beaten to death with a club of sandal-wood, a mode of execution exclusively royal; and thrown into the Menam. He was succeeded by the first sovereign of the present dynasty, who reigned until 1809, when the late king ascended the throne, where he remained until the 20th July 1824, when he died after a few days' illness. On the same day his oldest but illegitimate son, prince Kroma Chiat, ascended the throne

without massacre, convulsion, or bloodshed, a rare event in the annals of Siam.

In 1821 a mission from Bengal under Mr. Crawfurd was despatched to Siam: but it was received with great jealousy and distrust, and little positive advantage gained, but the foundation was laid of a friendly intercourse, and knowledge acquired tending greatly to facilitate any future attempt under more favourable circumstances. This soon occurred, for the Siamese, during the late Burmese war, volunteered their alliance against their old and inveterate enemy, but during the whole course of it, so far from being of the least service, exhibited a conduct in the highest degree equivocal and suspicious, employing their troops solely in the kidnapping of the unfortunate peasantry of the present British provinces south of Rangoon. Capt. Burney was in consequence despatched to procure their liberation, which, after much lying and evasion on the part of the Siamese cabinet, he effected to the number of above nine hundred, but they refused to restore our old ally, the dethroned king of Queda, to his dominions. Some commercial advantages were also gained by the treaty of 1827, and many restrictions removed, the Siamese admitting Khek and Chin to travel through the interior of their territories from Tenasserim and the adjacent British provinces. Khek and Chin in the original treaty have been translated into "Asiatic subjects of Great Britain not being Burmese, Peguers, or descendants of Europeans," and all British subjects may proceed by sea to any Siamese port.—(*Crawfurd, Burney, Singapoor Chronicle, Finlayson, Turpin, Leyden, Elmore, Symes, &c.*)

SIAM TOWN.—See YUTHIA.

SIAMPA *(or Champa)*.—A small state of India beyond the Ganges, partly situated on the eastern coast of the gulf of Siam, and formerly an independent kingdom, but for above twenty years past subject to Cochin China, of which empire it at present forms the southernmost province. As yet its geographical features are very little known, but the lower part is described as a level champaign country, much intersected by the Donnai river and its numerous branches. In the Javanese annals Siampa is mentioned as an independent state so early as A.D. 1478, and apparently was then inhabited by Buddhists. At present there is a considerable Mahomedan population, who speak a dialect of the Malay, and are said to be the ruling sect.

In 1824 a small junk arrived at Singapore from Cambodia, the crew and owners of which were part of a colony settled there, but who originally came from the country of Siampa. In their new country (Cambodia) they had mixed with the Malays, and adopted their religion, in consequence of which they spoke both their own language (the Champa) and the Malay. Very little of the interior of this country is as yet known, but images of Hindoo deities have been imported from thence *via* Cambodia, and there is reason to believe that Hindooism, similar to what formerly existed in Java, now exists in the inland parts of the province, the inhabitants of which are conjectured to be a branch of the great Lao nation.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Crawfurd, &c.*)

SIAO ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, about thirty-five miles in circumference, situated off the north-eastern extremity of the island of Celebes; lat. 2° 48′ N., lon. 125° 5′ E. On this island there is a volcano, which during its eruptions covers the neighbouring islands with cinders. The land is high but fruitful, and provisions are cheap. The Dutch had formerly a small garrison here, which has been long withdrawn.—(*Sonnerat, Forrest, &c.*)

SIBNIBAS *(Sivanivasa)*.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Nuddea, sixty-four miles N.N.E. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 25′ N., lon. 88° 49′ E. There is a short passage for boats from the north to Calcutta past this place, during the greater

part of the year, and a toll is levied near the entrance of the creek where it branches off from the Issamutty, to defray the expense of keeping it navigable. At Sibnibas are the ruins of a palace formerly belonging to the Nuddea rajas, and near it are several pagodas in a better style of architecture than is usually seen in the lower parts of Bengal.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SIBUYAN ISLE.—A small island, one of the Philippines, from thirty to forty miles in circumference, and situated due south of Luzon; lat 12° 30′ N., lon. 122° 30′ E.

SICACOLE.—See CICACOLE.

SICLYGULLY (*sancri guli, the narrow pass*).—A celebrated pass in the province of Bengal, about twenty miles N.W. from Rajamahal, which marks the boundary of the Bengal and Bahar provinces; lat. 25° 12′ N., lon. 87°40′ E. This pass, during the Hindoo and Mahomedan governments, was the commanding entrance from Bahar into the kingdom of Bengal, and was fortified with a strong wall, which does not appear, however, to have been of any real service, as in 1742 a Maharatta army consisting of cavalry penetrated into Bengal to the S.W. of this pass, through the hills above Colgong. In 1824 Siclygully was a little town, or rather village of straw huts, with the ruinous bungalow and barracks of Mr. Cleveland's corps, situated at the base of a high rocky eminence at an angle of the Ganges, and commanding a fine view of two ranges of hills.—(*F. Buchanan, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

SIDOUT (*Siddhavat*).—A hilly division of the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, situated among the Eastern Ghauts, between the fourteenth and fifteenth degrees of north latitude. Its surface is rocky and mountainous, but interspersed with rocky vallies, watered by perennial streams from the hills. It is also traversed in part by the river Pennar, the bed of which during the hot and dry season is planted with melons, which, when ripe, are sent to the Coromandel coast, where they are greatly esteemed. In this portion of the British dominions many of the rajas, poligars, and other native chiefs have lost their estates since the sovereignty was transferred in A.D. 1800. Among these persons is the Chitiohel raja, whose family was formerly in possession of the country from the neighbourhood of Sidout to the Balpally pass. The general language is the Telinga.

SIDOUT.—A town in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, about twelve miles to the east of Cuddapah; lat. 14°30′ N., lon. 79° 2′ E. On the south side of the river Pennaur the range of hills extends along close to the bank, and about one mile and a half from the northern face of the fort there runs a chain of mountains, which continues with very little interruption as far as Perwuttum, and into the Nizam's territories. The river here, at the driest season, contains a small current sufficient for the customary ablutions of the Hindoos, who have several small temples; and the gateways to the east and west are ornamented with stone choultries.

The walls round the fort are of stone, high, and in a state of sufficient repair, and there is a rampart of some breadth all round the interior. The gateways to the westward are open, but the one on the eastern side, beyond which there is a modern work, said to have been built by the French, has been built up. There is a good ditch round three sides of the fort, which can be filled in the rainy season when the river is full. The fortifications of Sidout are said to have been erected by the Matlawar or Chitihel rajas, and appears to have been originally a fortified pagoda, dedicated to Siddheswara Swami, but only fragments of the religious edifice now remain. It became the residence of the Cuddapah nabobs on their being threatened with the Mysore power, as besides the strength of the fort (which is, however, commanded by some of the neighbouring hills) the country generally is of difficult access.

The town or pettah surrounding the fort was then extensive, and it continued a populous and thriving place until the removal of the collector's office to Cuddapah. Haleem Khan, the last nabob of the Meiri line, resided here when Hyder took the fort, and carried the family of the nabob into captivity. Sidout has the reputation of being healthily situated, and is rather a favourite residence with the natives. The tomb in the inner fort is held in great reverence by the Mahomedans, and both it and its mosque are favourable specimens of Mussulman architecture.—(*Newnham, &c.*)

SIDOWRA.—A town in the province of Delhi, fourteen miles S.S.W. from Nahan; lat. 30°23′ N., lon. 77°12′ E.

SIDPOOR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the north side of the Sereswati, sixty-eight miles N.N.W. from Ahmedabad, and twenty-eight from Mehsani, on the road from the south to Palhanpoor; lat. 23° 55′ N., lon. 72° 19′ E. It is tributary to the Guicowar. —(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SIKAR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, seventy miles N.W. from Jeypoor; lat. 27° 30′ N., lon. 74° 45′ E.

SIKKIM. — The ancient limits of this principality are uncertain; but according to native authorities they were separated from the Chinese dominions in Tibet by a ridge of mountains called Khawa Karpola, or the mountains white with snow, while further down the Conki formed the boundary to the west until it reached the plain, where the whole tract of low country belonged to the Morung or Vijayapoor raja, and after his fall to the Gorkhas. Between the Mahananda and the Teesta the Sikkim raja possessed a low tract seven or eight miles wide, inhabited by the Cooch tribe, and cultivated with the plough. Such were its ancient dominions, but since its recent connexion with the British government Sikkim has received, what all native states receive unwillingly, a compact and well-defined boundary. To the north it is separated by the Himalaya mountains from Chinese Tartary; on the south it has the Nepaulese of Morung, and the Bengal district of Rungpoor; to the east it is separated from the Deb raja of Bootan's territory by the course of the eastern branch of the Teesta river; and on the west from those of Nepaul by the Conki river. In length it may be estimated at sixty miles, by forty the average breadth. Except a small section of the plain, the whole of this country is situated among hills, and its productions, vegetable and mineral, entirely resemble those of the Nepaul territories, which are similarly situated with respect to latitude, elevation, and climate.

According to native authorities there are on the Conki river two marts named Bilasi and Majhoya, to which the traders from the plain carry rice, salt, extract of sugar-cane, hogs, dry-fish, tobacco, spirituous liquor, and various cloths. Before the Gorkha conquest they also took oxen for slaughter; but that tribe being Hindoos prohibited such sacrilege. From the mountaineers the traders procured in return cotton, Indian madder, musk, and Tibet cow and bull tails. At Dimali, on the Balakongyar river, there is a mart or custom-house consisting of a square surrounded by buildings, into which the merchants and their commodities are received, there being no other permanent buildings except those of the collector and his assistants. To this place dealers from the low country take up salt, tobacco, cotton cloths, goats, fowls, swine, iron, and occasionally broadcloth, and in return bring back munjeet or Indian madder, cotton, bees'-wax, blankets, horses, musk, cow and bull tails, Chinese flowered silks, and rhinoceros' horns.

North from Dimali half a day's journey, according to the same informants, on a hill near the source of the Balakongyar, was the residence of Yu-kang-ta, the Lapcha chief, who formerly collected the

duties for the Gorkhas. By the natives of Sikkim it is named Samdung, but by the Bengalese Nagreecote; east from which two days' journey, near the source of the Mahananda, there is said to be another gola or mart, now much neglected. The greater part of Sikkim is included between the two arms of the Teesta, where the soil is watered by different branches of that river, the space forming a sort of valley; and although the whole is extremely mountainous, yet there is much cultivation carried on, the principal articles being rice and Indian madder or munjeet. Beyond Samdung and Satang one day's journey, and on the other side of the first high mountains, is Darjiling, which appears to have been one of the most important strongholds of the country, as it was selected by the Gorkhas for their principal military station. From hence to Sikkim the capital is six days' journey, and the snowy mountains are said to be about the same distance still further north.

In 1809 the Sikkim raja, besides the petty territory of Gandhauk, or Gamtoo, bounded on the west by the western branch of the Teesta, possessed a small portion beyond the lesser or eastern Teesta, which, however, rather formed the general boundary between his lands and those of the Deb raja of Bootan. According to tradition, the Sikkim state had at one time overrun a great part of the country bordering on Rungpoor, and probably then compelled the Bykantpoor zemindar to abandon the forest and seek refuge further south. In 1772 the latter was found in firm alliance with the Bootan government against the common enemy. The inhabitants of this principality consist almost entirely of the Lapcha tribe, the country being named Sikkim or Sikkim Bhote from the name of its capital, and from its being subject to a Bhootea chief. These Lapchas may be considered the fourth of the more important tribes to the east of the Nepaul valley, and in their manners much resemble the Kirauts; but instead of having chosen a Rajpoot chief, they appear to have selected for their leader a native of Tibet, in consequence of which the Lama doctrines have made considerable progress among them. The Lapchas eat beef, pork, and every other aliment reckoned detestable by the Brahminical Hindoos, and drink ardent spirits to excess; neither do they marry their females until they have attained the years of maturity. The men were formerly (and probably still are) armed with swords and bows, from which last they discharged poisoned arrows. Spears were not used, as being ill suited to a country covered with dense jungles, where men cannot march in compact order. They have a few matchlock muskets, but mostly too large to be fired without a rest. Besides the Bhooteas, who are principally attached to the chiefs, and the Lapchas by whom he is guarded, the hills of Sikkim are said to contain many people of the Limboo tribe. The Lama religion, although far from universal, is decidedly the most prevalent, and the partial incarnations of the deity in the bodies of inspired Lamas of such frequent occurrence, that in 1809, within the limits of the Lapcha and Kiraut countries, there were no less than twelve existing at the same time.

The princes of Sikkim, predecessors of the present raja, were Bhooteas, said to be sprung from a high family at Lassa, who took the title of Gelpo. But although the chief be of Bhootea origin, the strength of the Sikkim army has always consisted of Lapchas, the Bhooteas being naturally a very timid race, quite stupified by the enervating influence of what they call religion. The Lapchas, on the other hand, continue a set of vigorous, beef-eating barbarians, of whom only about one-half have been deluded by the monkish austerities and superior learning of the Lamas. Formerly the second dignitary in the state was the hang, or chief of the Lapchas, who probably was the real sovereign in temporal affairs, the Gelpo presiding in matters of religion. It is not known how

many princes succeeded to the throne of Sikkim, but it is probable the Bhooteeas have been paramount in the country a considerable time. The chief who governed Sikkim prior to 1782 by the natives of Bengal was named Roop Chiring, whose residence was at Darjiling, where he had a strong house built of brick, and much admired in that region. This prince died about 1782, and was succeeded by his son Chawa Raja, which is the title given by the people of the country to the heir apparent.

In A.D. 1788 the Gorkhas invaded Sikkim with an army of about 6,000 men, of whom 2,000 were regulars, the whole commanded by Tierar Singh, the soubah of the Morung. This officer received no opposition until he approached the capital, in defence of which the raja ventured a battle, when after a desperate resistance he was completely defeated, owing probably to the fire of the Gorkha musketeers, who also sustained a considerable loss, yet were immediately after able to besiege the town. All these events took place at some period prior to the 28th of October 1788. After experiencing this disaster the raja retired towards the frontiers of Tibet, in order to re-assemble an army, and to solicit assistance from the Deb raja of Bootan and the pontiff Lama of Lassa. With the first a treaty was soon concluded, by the conditions of which the Sikkim chief engaged to pay a tribute to the Bootan raja if through his exertions he succeeded in recovering his dominions; and being in consequence reinforced by a considerable detachment of Bootanners, and also by a party of Bhooteas from a Tibet province named Portaw, he returned towards his capital about the beginning of December. His approach compelled the Gorkhas to raise the siege, and after losing many men in a skirmish they retired towards Ilam on the Conki, where they erected forts to secure a communication with the Morung.

It is probable that about this period the Sikkim raja died, leaving his son, Kurin Namki, an infant. The war was then conducted by Yuk-suthuk, the hang, or chief, of the Lapchas, who was next in rank to the raja, while the metropolis was defended by the hang's brother, Namoi, named by the Bengalese Lamjit. Early in 1789 the Bootanners retired, probably for want of pay or plunder, and the greater part of the people of Sikkim submitted quietly to the Gorkha yoke, while the dethroned raja fled to Tankiya in Tibet, and the hang of the Lapchas retreated to a stronghold, situated between two branches of the Teesta, from whence he ever after annoyed the invaders of his country. This place, named Gandhauk or Gamtoo, has a territory annexed to it of considerable extent, which afforded the raja an income of 7,000 rupees per annum; but being a man of high birth, he obtained in marriage the daughter of the chief minister at Lassa, with whom in 1809 he returned to the petty dominion which the energy of his minister (the hang) had preserved.

Both the dharma, or sacerdotal raja of Bootan, and the pontiff of Lassa were now seriously alarmed by the progress of the Gorkhas, and applied to the emperor of China for his interposition. This proved effectual in securing the Bootan chief; but the Tibetians were obliged to cede to the Gorkhas the province of Kutti, which still forms the government of Kheroo, at the head of the Sancosi, near the Arun, and comprehended in the district of Chayenpoor. The Lapchas, however, notwithstanding the apparent desperation of their affairs, continued to give the Gorkhas so much trouble, that at last, as a measure of policy, they consented to give them a governor of their own tribe, who in 1808 continued to exercise the whole civil authority, paying an annual tribute to the government at Catmandoo. In military matters he was subordinate to the soubah of Chayenpoor, and Gorkha garrisons were established in Sikkim and Darjiling, the two principal stations of the district.

The affairs of Sikkim continued in this unsatisfactory state until the rupture with the Gorkhas in 1814, when the raja immediately declared against them, and acted the part of a faithful, and, according to the extent of his resources, a useful ally to the British nation. At the pacification of 1816 he was in consequence rewarded by the recovery of a considerable portion of his territory within the hills, to which the Bengal government added a tract of low land, ceded by the Gorkhas, to the east of the Mutchee river. This last-mentioned section is a slip of land about twelve or fourteen miles in breadth, reckoning from the base of the hills, and very thinly inhabited. Only detached portions are cultivated, being separated from each other by forests, which are altogether impassable during the rainy season. The land under actual tillage is extremely fertile, and capable of yielding any crop; but at present its produce is chiefly confined to rice, oil seeds, and a few other articles of small note and quantity. The scanty population may be accounted for partly by the insalubrity of the climate, but more especially from its having been the extreme point eastward to which the Gorkhas extended their conquests, and the very spot where the last struggle took place between the Gorkha soubah of Morung and the Sikkim authorities. These military operations lasted two campaigns, and compelled most of the inhabitants to seek an asylum within the British provinces. In consequence of these unfavourable circumstances the whole of Nizamtarah became depopulated, after the Lapchas attacked the Gorkhas on the 3d of February 1816, nor could any of the expatriated natives be induced to return until it was ascertained that the tract had been ceded to the British. The same process, although not to so aggravated a degree, took place in the pergunnah of Hatizusah.

Besides the land revenue the Gorkhas had other fiscal resources, such as a payment for permission to graze cattle, which tax, after the tract came into the British, was farmed for one year at 2,500 rupees. The next extra branch was from the forests, which of course varied according to the demand for timber; but the forests to the east of the Mutchee, with the exception of those due north of Bykantpoor, are not valuable, so that the whole profit from this source was quite insignificant. The other items, such as a tax for permission to gather berries and to catch parrots, were also petty and vexatious, the first-mentioned monopoly yielding only ninety rupees per annum. The unicorn, so long considered as a fabulous animal, is said to exist in the alpine regions of this province; but not having been yet caught, has hitherto escaped taxation.

From the information collected by the British functionaries while the settlements were under consideration, it appeared that a tract of low country was absolutely necessary for the comfort and subsistence of the inhabitants of the high lands; but owing to physical circumstances, considerable difficulties occurred in the arrangement of the boundaries. The river Mutchee, at a very short distance before it enters the British territory, is separated into two branches, the old and the new Mutchee, and the difficulty referred principally to the small tract lying between the two branches, which is called Kopaulastie. If the old Mutchee formed the frontier, all communication between the Nepaulese Morung and the lands of the Sikkim raja would be prevented, the country to the westward of that stream being for a considerable distance an impenetrable forest, extending to the hills and without inhabitants; whereas had any part of Kopaulastie been retained by the Gorkhas, it would have proved an interminable source of dispute with the adjoining governments. Its annexation to the Bengal presidency was at one time recommended; but the distance of the tract in question from the seat of authority at Rungpoor, and the entire ignorance of the people regarding the local observances

within the British boundaries, rendered the adoption of this measure of very doubtful advantage. The whole was in consequence conferred on the Sikkim raja, to be held by him exempt from any tribute, and subject to no other condition than those which would attach to the general relations established with that petty state. The stipulations on which the tract within the hills were restored to the Sikkim raja were: a cessation of all aggression on his part against the Gorkhas; the employment of his military power and resources in aid of the British troops when engaged among the hills; the exclusion of Europeans; the surrender of criminals, and the protection of legal commerce.

While these discussions were pending, much embarrassment was experienced by Capt. Latter, the British commissioner, in communicating in a language not understood by any European, or even native inhabitant of the old provinces. The policy of supporting and strengthening the Sikkim principality was sufficiently obvious, but the mere cession of the hill-country, without the annexation of some of the low land, would not have accomplished the object, the latter being indispensable for the subsistence of the Lapcha garrisons. Neither were the inhabitants by these arrangements transferred to a foreign power, but to the control of their original rulers, whose authority, notwithstanding the Gorkha usurpation, had never been wholly abrogated; all public orders having invariably had the joint seal of the Sikkim raja's dewan and the Gorkha soubah of Naggree.

As may be supposed, from the geographical position of his dominions as well as the bond of a common religion, the Sikkim raja has always been closely connected with the Lamas of Lassa and Teshoo Loomboo, with the Deb raja of Bootan, and occasionally has maintained a diplomatic intercourse with the mighty empire of China. Latterly this interchange of couriers has increased, the Chinese functionaries in Tibet feeling uneasy qualms at their unexpected contact with the British. On the 8th of August 1816 two Chinese envoys, of a rank answering to that of soubahdar in the Bengal army, arrived at the court of the Sikkim raja, accompanied by seventeen followers. According to the information respecting them, collected by Capt. Latter, these persons had been despatched from Lassa by the Chinese viziers Tea Chang (or Te-chan-choon) for the purpose of inquiring if a letter, sent some time before by the viziers to the British government, had been forwarded to Calcutta, and also to ascertain the existing state of affairs throughout Northern Hindostan. To these ambassadors the Sikkim raja fully explained the nature of his recent connexion with the British government, informing them, that although his troops had joined the British against the Gorkhas, the allies meditated no hostile movement against any portion of the empire of China. Being well feasted, the envoys remained three days, and seemed much inclined to tarry longer; but the raja, desirous of getting rid of them, gained them over by a present of ready money, and prevailed on them to depart. The Sikkim raja has since been the channel through which various despatches have been transmitted from the Bengal government to the Chinese functionaries at Lassa.

The restoration of this state under the British protection and guarantee, will constitute a barrier against Gorkha ambition and enterprize in an eastern direction, and may eventually lead to an enlargement of our commercial relations with Tibet and Southern Tartary. It was well ascertained that the views of the Catmandoo cabinet had long been directed to this quarter, and there is no reason to suppose that the feeble states of Bootan and Assam could have resisted their arms. The reduction of these states, besides extending their territories along the British frontier, and thereby opening

new sources of dissension, would in process of time have led to a communication with the more distant empire of the Birmans, an event from which much embarrassment and contingent danger might have resulted. —(*F. Buchanan, Capt. Latter, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SIKKIM *(or Damoo Jung).*—According to native information this place stands on the west side of the Jhamikuma river, which rises on the southern declivity of the snowy mountains, and opposite to the town separates into two branches, surrounding an immense mountain, on the top of which there is a small level, and a stronghold named Tasiding. The united streams, under the name of Remika, afterwards join the Teesta; lat. 27° 16′ N., lon. 88° 3′ E., 110 miles N. by E. from the town of Purneah.

SILANI.—A village in Northern Hindostan, situated in the lowest range of mountains westward of the Kardeh doon, or valley, about four miles from the point where the Choorapani river opens into the plains. In this vicinity seams of coal have been discovered: it is slaty, brittle, and black, with a resinous lustre, and does not soil with the touch. It burns with a bituminous and sulphurous odour, and leaves behind a residue of a reddish colour.

SILHET *(Srihata, a rich market).*—A district in the province of Bengal, of which it occupies the north-eastern extremity. On the north it is separated from Assam by an extensive range of mountains, some peaks of which are 6,000 feet above the level of the adjacent plains, and inhabited by Cosseahs and several other wild tribes, in various stages of barbarity. The principal passes into Assam are Luckhat, eighteen miles north from the town of Silhet, and Bhookoola, in Cachar. On the east Silhet is separated from the Burmese empire by the two small hill states of Munipoor and Cachar; an independent portion of the Tipperah raja's territory, inhabited by Kookies, bounds it on the south. The eastern and southern portions are hilly; but the northern, central, and western parts are flat, and submerged during the rains.

This is the most easterly of the British posessions in Hindostan, being within 350 miles of the province of Yunan, in China. The whole of the mountains and mountainous tract north-east of Silhet, until within a few miles of the Assam low country, named Cosseahs by Europeans, Khasiyas in Northern Hindostan, but who denominate themselves Khyer: they are described as a muscular race of men, armed with bows and arrows, long naked swords, and shields so large that they afford shelter from the rain. This tribe also occupy the hilly country from about half-way between Laour and Doorgapoor eastward as far as Cachar. They principally inhabit the southern portion of the mountainous tract, none of them, with the exception of the Gentiah family, having extended their possessions so far as the Assamese plains. Formerly they held the low lands in Silhet adjacent to the hills as far as the river Soormah; but they were expelled on account of their turbulence many years ago.

The Cosseah language differs from those of the Cacharies, Garrows, and other bordering tribes, who appear to use dialects having a common origin. They are also distinguished in their features by the absence of that peculiar conformation of eyelid which so strongly marks the Chinese, Burmese, and other Eastern nations of Tartar extraction. They are governed by a number of petty chiefs, with very limited authority, the most powerful of whom are the rajas of Salung (or Khyram) and Gentiah. They have no distinct written character, and for purposes of correspondence employ the Bengalese languages and scribes. They have adopted the Brahminical faith so far as to abstain from beef; but they eat pork and poultry, and get intoxicated with strong liquors. Their laws of inhe-

ritance resemble those of the Nairs of Malabar, descending to the nephew by the eldest sister of the party.

Under the Mogul government Silhet was formed into a foujdary, or military station, more on account of its remote and secluded situation beyond the Soormah and Brahmaputra than from any well-grounded apprehensions of foreign invasion, protected as it is by inaccessible hills or impenetrable jungles. Its actual dimensions since the dismemberment of several pergunnahs have been computed at 2,861 miles, divided into 146 small pergunnahs, held by an equal number of zemindars. Near to the town of Silhet the country presents a novel appearance to an eye long habituated to the flat surface of lower Bengal, being composed of various conical shaped hills, with broad bases, rising irregularly at short distances from each other, and covered with trees and verdure to the very summit, while to the north and east lofty mountains rise abruptly like a wall, and appear as if at some remote period they had withstood the surge of the ocean.

During the rains a great proportion of the land is laid under water by the overflowing of the Soormah and other rivers by which it is intersected, so that the passage from Dacca is performed for nearly the whole way over rice and pasture-fields, which in the cold season are many feet above the current of the rivers. Over this tract, when the floods are at their height, there is from eight to twelve feet of water; the elevated sites of the villages appear like islands; the vessels' masts are entangled among the branches of trees, while their progress is impeded by the matted thickness and adhesion of the paddy stalks. When the inundation drains off, the land is left in an excellent condition for rice cultivation, which species of food is usually so abundant, that in 1801 rice in the husk sold for fifteen rupees per one hundred maunds, of eighty pounds each, and coarser grains were still cheaper. In addition to this ample supply, every stream and puddle swarms with fish, which are caught in the most slovenly manner with a hand-net, or even a piece of old mat. Wages, as may be inferred, are consequently extremely low, being from half a rupee to one rupee and a half per month, every thing included; but the peasantry being naturally averse to exertion, and never working but when stimulated by the pangs or apprehensions of hunger, the soil is on the whole very indifferently cultivated.

The produce of Silhet, owing to the depression of the soil, and the swampy nature of a large proportion of the surface, is principally rice; the more costly articles of cotton and sugar are also raised, the first on the hills, the last on the more elevated spots of the different pergunnahs, but the quantity procured is scarcely sufficient to supply the wants of the district. Among the chief productions and staple commodities for exportation must be reckoned oranges and limes. The first are procured from extensive orange plantations, or rather forests, and the quantity annually exported is very great, Calcutta and many other remote parts being supplied from hence. The quality is inferior to the delicious fruit of Chandpoor on the great Megna in the Dacca district; but may vie with any other, and the price on the spot is frequently not more than one rupee per thousand. Something peculiar in the soil or climate would appear to be required to fit a place for the production of good oranges. In the whole extent of the British territories in Hindostan there are only three spots where *good* oranges are produced, *viz.* the district of Silhet, Chandpoor above described, and Sautghur at the foot of the Eastern Ghauts or passes leading up to Bangalore from Madras.

Chunam, or lime, is found in inexhaustible quantities among the boundary hills, accessible during the rains, from whence it is transported by the inland navigation to the most distant quarters of Bengal, but it is inferior to the beautiful shell chunam of the

Coromandel coast. A commerce in chunam, wax, ivory, and other articles, is carried on with the Cosseahs and other mountaineers on the eastern frontier. These were formerly monopolies; but in 1799 a general freedom in trade was proclaimed, subject to certain police regulations to prevent frauds and quarrels. The other productions of Silhet are aguru, or fragrant aloe wood, wild silk, and a cloth manufactured from it named Muggadooties. Great numbers of elephants are annually caught on government account, but they are reckoned inferior both in size and quality to those nearer the sea-coast, and of a more southern latitude. In 1814 coal was discovered to be abundant in the Laour hills, at first of a spurious kind and slaty fracture, but more recently the quality has so much improved that it has been forwarded to Calcutta for the use of the arsenal. The strata was found in the broken bank of a river for a considerable extent, and at distances of several miles. Shields made in Silhet have long been noted throughout India for the lustre and durability of the black varnish with which they are covered. This is composed of the expressed juice of the marking nut (the semicarpus anacardium), and another kindred fruit, the holigarnia longifolia, whose juices are resinous, being solable in alcohol, but not at all in water. Silhet shields have long been a considerable article of export, being in request throughout Hindostan among such natives as still retain their ancient predeliction for the sword and buckler. Formerly large boats were built here for the royal Mogul fleet stationed at Dacca, and square-rigged vessels have since been occasionally constructed of timber, the growth of the country.

An establishment, named the Putwarry, exists in Silhet for the purpose of pointing out to individuals the lands they have bought at public sales, without which it would be extremely difficult for purchasers to discover and discriminate such property, the lands being scattered in small fragments through different villages. To this establishn ent the revenue officers are obliged to have recourse, to ascertain what lands are the just property of the state, the adjacent zemindars being always on the alert in appropriating such lands, unincumbered with the payment of any land-tax to the public treasury. In 1801, it was estimated that the produce of the rent-free lands was equal to about one-fourth of the whole jumma; and the lands exempted from taxation were then in the best condition. At that date the revenues of the whole district were collected in cowries, which were also the general medium of pecuniary transactions, and a considerable expense was annually incurred by government in effecting their conversion into bullion; but between that date and 1814, the circulation of this maritime currency had been so gradually decreasing, that in 1813, the whole of that year's revenue was realized in specie.

In Silhet there are no regular schools and seminaries for teaching the Hindoo or Mahomedan law, but in different places there are private schools where boys are taught to read and write. Although so large a proportion of the whole population is Mahomedan, the mosques have been long going to ruin, while several paltry Hindoo temples have been erected, and a few merchants have exchanged their thatched dwellings for others of brick and mortar. In 1801, Mr. Ahmuty computed the inhabitants of Silhet at 188,245 men; 164,381 females, and 140,319 children, making a total of 492,945 persons, in the ratio of two Mahomedans to three Hindoos. Mr. Roberts, then judge and magistrate, was of opinion that his jurisdiction, although one of the smallest in Bengal, contained no less than 27,000 talookdars. The number of houses was estimated by the collector at 103,637; the boats belonging to the district at 23,000. During the Mogul dynasty, and even at a less distant period, children used to be purchased here as an article of commerce, and resold at Dacca and else-

where. Along the Silhet frontier towards the Cosseah (or Khasiya) mountains, there are several brick redoubts, with bastions at each end for the guards and ammunition; the whole built to repel the incursions of that uncivilized tribe, which has long infested the low countries in their vicinity. A guard from the Sebundy, or provincial battalion, is regularly stationed in each of the forts at Myaram, Bamgong, Chintislah, Kontakhal, and Punduah, and to them is entrusted the preservation of tranquillity on the frontier, where they are cantoned, and where they are periodically relieved by troops from head-quarters.

In 1798, the low country of Bungong, on the north-west side of the Soormah river was occupied by the Cosseah mountaineers, who scarcely ever paid the revenue due to government, the recovery of which was found to be impracticable, as the defaulters on any appearance of coercion fled to their native mountains which are inaccessible to a military force. They were expelled from the lands, but returned repeatedly and committed many murders. In 1814 a Cosseah council was convened among the hills, the subject of consideration being a dam which had been opened by the British peasantry, in revenge for which they determined to carry fire and sword into the pergunnah of Prerua. This resolution they carried into prompt execution, under the immediate command of their chiefs, and during the incursion destroyed two large villages and killed four unoffending cultivators of the soil. These atrocities were soon repressed, and the invaders driven back to their dens in the jungles; but their vicinity still continues a subject of doubt and anxiety to every public functionary in charge of the district. By one of these they are described as honest and fair in their dealings, and of strict veracity, but outrageously vindictive; in the three first qualities exhibiting a most striking contrast to their neighbours of Bengal. Occasionally they suffer arbitrary punishments and extortions from the inferior officers of government, who levy imposts of their own enactment on the traffic carried on between Silhet and the Cosseahs, with whose chiefs they have also been accused of carrying on a clandestine correspondence.

During the Mogul government this district furnished a considerable number of slaves and (as stated by Abul Fazel) eunuchs for the royal seraglio. The practice of inveigling away its free natives for the purpose of selling them at Dacca, Patna, Calcutta, and Moorshedabad, still continues, although from the vigilance of the British authorities the attempt is rarely successful. An authorized traffic in slaves has existed here from time immemorial; and one of the magistrates estimated this class at one-sixth of the whole population, progressively increasing by domestic propagation. The transfer of slaves takes place both with and without the consent of the slaves; but in the latter predicament only the mildest treatment can secure the purchaser any benefit from his acquisition. Occasionally the poorer descriptions of free inhabitants sell themselves when in extreme distress, and a few persons, principally slaves, are inveigled away by bazeegurs and wandering fakeers. Women also, of the poorer classes, both here and in the Backergunge district, when left widows, sell their children to procure food; some have been hereditary slaves for several generations, and are sold along with the estate on which they reside; others are imported from Cachar, Gentiah, and other territories beyond the limits of British jurisdiction.

Prior to 1824 this district had enjoyed a long tranquillity, the peace of the country having never been disturbed, except by the attack on Gentiah, in 1774, and some insignificant disputes with the Cossyahs, in 1789 and 1790. In 1824, however, it became necessary to collect troops to guard against an invasion from the Birman empire, and latterly to become the aggressors, by invading and conquering the contiguous province of Cachar.—(*Ahmuty, Hayes, French,*

Sage, Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Rennell, &c.)

SILHET.—A town in the province of Bengal, the capital of the preceding district; lat. 24° 55′ N., lon. 91° 40′ E. The travelling distance from Calcutta to this place is computed by Major Rennell at 325 miles; but the direct distance does not exceed 260 miles.

SILINDUNG.—A Batta district in the island of Sumatra, situated inland from the bay of Tapanooly. This is an even plain ten or twelve miles long by about three broad, and when visited by Messrs. Burton and Ward in 1822, presented one vast unbroken field of rice cultivation. A fine broad river, with numberless tributaries, flowed through it, and water for irrigation was conducted also to the fields by artificial aqueducts. Many villages were scattered over its surface. This plain is surrounded by hills from 500 to 1,000 feet high, also under cultivation, and wholly free from jungle, except at some of the tops, said to be the abode of evil spirits.

The district of Silindung (or Toba Silindung) in 1822 contained eighty-two villages, the population of which was supposed to exceed 80,000 persons. The entrance to their houses is from a trap-door beneath, and the interior consists of one single room, thirty or forty feet by twenty, containing from thirty to fifty inmates. The space between the ceiling and the roof is used as a granary, and as a depôt for the skulls of their enemies. The soil consists chiefly of a light grey sand, strongly resembling that of Bengal. Rice and sweet potatoes are the principal articles of produce. The coco-nut is not seen beyond the second range of mountains inland. Neither tobacco nor cotton are raised, both being imported from Tapanooly.

Cotton cloths are made and dyed by the females, and a superior kind of white pottery is made in the vicinity of the Lake Toba, adorned with figures of various colours. Iron is roughly wrought into choppers, large knives, spear-heads, &c. The matchlocks are procured from Menancabow, but the coarse gunpowder which they use is of their own manufacture. Large pipes of brass, and ornaments of gold, brass, iron, and sea-shells are wrought with great neatness; but the men generally lead an indolent life, and it seems rather wonderful that, with so much leisure to do evil, they do not commit more. They do not use opium, nor any intoxicating liquors except palm-wine; but they smoke an herb slightly narcotic, and tobacco eagerly, when they can get it. Their brass pipes are so large and strong, that they are occasionally used as weapons of offence.—(*Burton and Ward, &c.*)

SILLAHMEW.—A town in the province of Ava, which in 1795 was a large town, shaded by wide-spreading trees, embellished with temples, and remarkable for its manufactures of silk, the raw material for which was procured from the province of Yunan, in China; but when visited by the British mission in 1809 a very different picture was exhibited. The numerous pagodas and religious buildings still indicated the extent and former importance of the town; but with the exception of one old woman, not an inhabitant remained. A large proportion of the males had been conscribed for the Siamese war; and the town being left thus defenceless, fell an easy prey to the insurgent Nakonek, who completed its ruin.—(*Symes, Canning, &c.*)

SILLANAH.—A town in the province of Malwa. In 1819 the gross revenues of this chiefship amounted to 1,11,825 rupees, but were expected to exceed two lacks in 1824.

SILLAW.—A populous town in the province and district of Bahar, up to 1820 not noticed in any map. It stands about forty miles S.E. from Patna, and twelve from the city of Bahar.

SILLEEMUDDUN.—A village in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, fifty-three miles travelling dis-

tance S.E. from the city of Madura. Here is a handsome pillared choultry, with a fine reservoir in front.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SIMALACA.—A village in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, situated on the great Juggernauth road, about thirty-three miles travelling distance S.S.W. from Balasore. There is a small bungalow here for the accommodation of travellers.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SIMMEREAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, fifty-eight miles south from Teary; lat. 23° 55′ N., lon. 78° 53′ E.

SIMLA.—A British station among the hills between the Sutuleje and Jumna, situated near Subhatoo, and elevated 7,200 feet above the level of the sea. Here some bungalows have been erected for the benefit of invalids, the temperature being healthy during the hot season, and the surrounding scenery magnificent. It was visited by Lord Amherst in 1827, who here received the rajas of Gurwal and Bussaher, and the rana of Joobul, and a complimentary mission from Runject Singh of Lahore.

SIMOGA (*Siva Mogay*).—A town in the Mysore raja's territories, 122 miles N.W. from Seringapatam; lat. 13° 56′ N., lon. 75° 41′ E. This place is fortified, but the works are not strong, although during the rains the river Tunga washes the eastern wall. In A.D. 1790 a battle was fought on the plains near Simoga, between Purseram Bhow and Mahomed Reza, commonly called the Binky nabob, or burning lord, being, on account of his activity, generally employed by the sultan to lay waste the country. In this action the Maharattas scarcely took any part, the whole brunt of the engagement falling on a Bombay detachment under Capt. Little, which at the commencement of the battle mustered only 750 men. At this time Simoga contained 6,000 houses, the whole of which were destroyed by the Maharattas, the women ravished, and the handsomest carried away. Such of the men as fell into the hands of the Maharattas were killed; and of those who escaped the sword, a large proportion perished by hunger. These ruffians did not even spare the Kudali Swami, although the high-priest (gooroo) of all the Maharatta Brahmins of the Smartal sect, by whom he is considered an actual incarnation of the deity. They plundered and burned his matam, or college: which so enraged the pontiff, that he threatened them with excommunication, and was only pacified by a present from the Peshwa of 400,000 rupees, half of which Tippoo extorted from him, and paid to Lord Cornwallis, in part of the fine imposed at the treaty of Seringapatam.—(*F. Buchanan, Moor, &c.*)

SINCAPOOR.—See SINGAPOOR.

SINDE (*Sindhu*).—A principality in the ancient province of Mooltan, which on account of its having for some years possessed a separate and independent government, has risen into political, and probably temporary importance. The general boundaries of this state, including Tatta, are Mooltan and Afghanistan on the north; Cutch and the sea on the south; on the east it has Ajmeer, the sandy desert and Cutch; and on the west the sea and mountains of Baloochistan. The eastern limits of Sinde are particularly ill defined, but the late Capt. Macmurdo was of opinion they ought to be fixed by the channel of the Pooran, or ancient Indus, which may be said to separate Sinde from the desert. In length the dominions of the Sinde Ameers may be loosely estimated at 300 miles in length, by eighty the average breadth; and it is intersected diagonally throughout its whole extent by the river Indus. On the north Sinde adjoins the country of Bahawul Khan and the fort of Subzul. Proceeding from thence south are the possessions of many petty chiefs, usually tributary to the ameers of Sinde.

The plain of the Indus from the sea to Sungur is included in the Sinde dominions. Of this division

the portion extending from the sea to Shekarpoor is inhabited by Sindies under a native prince, tributary to the Cabul sovereign, and now generally named Sinde by the British; but in strictness it ought to be designated Lower Sinde, and from Shekarpoor inclusive to Sungur, Upper Sinde. The section to the west of the Indus is mostly inhabited by Baloochies; and with the exception of a small tract, north of Shekarpoor, is directly under the Cabul sovereign. East of the Indus Sinde Proper is a perfect level from its most northern boundary to the seashore, with the exception of two or three low hills called the Gunjah hills, on the island formed by the river on which Hyderabad, the capital, stands. West of the Indus from Sehwan (26° 6′ N.) to the sea the face of the country varies, some parts being mountainous and others flat, and some interspersed with ranges of low hills. Northward from Sehwan the plains extend to the hills of Sewistan. The district of Chandookee, enclosed between the trunk of the Indus and a remarkable branch, is highly cultivated and very productive, and yields, even under its present misgovernment, eight lacks of rupees annually to the revenue. This branch of the great river diverges to the west, and after spreading over a wide tract, which at different seasons is either a marsh or a lake, it again joins the main stream seventy miles below the point of separation.

A great part of the province lying to the westward of where the monsoon ceases is a barren sterile soil, and totally unproductive, from the absence of moisture. Easterly from the meridian of 67° 40′ E. the land near to the Indus appears capable of improvement; but to the northward of Tatta, and a small distance to the west of the river, the country is mountainous, barren, rocky, and uninhabited. In the months of June and July the thermometer ranges from 90° to 100°; but the air in Upper Sinde is so pure and so much refreshed by cooling breezes from the west, that the heat is never excessive. About Hyderabad the climate is healthy, and the air in the month of August remarkably clear, the difference of refraction in astronomical observations being scarcely perceptible.

The Indus from the city of Tatta to a branch called the Fulalee has from two to two and a half fathoms water; off Tatta it has three, four, and more frequently five fathoms, with a muddy bottom. Its banks in the vicinity of Hyderabad are generally well cultivated, except where the ameers have made enclosures to confine game; but these are so numerous and extensive as to occupy many of the most valuable spots of land. The cultivation of Sinde depends on the periodical rains and the process of irrigation by means of canals and watercourses. During the swelling of the rivers grains and other seeds are raised; the remainder of the year is employed in the cultivation of indigo, sugar-cane, huldee, &c. Every bega of land watered by a canal or wheel pays (1809) a revenue of from one and a quarter to three and a half rupees; one wheel is capable of watering sixteen begas. A duty of one rupee is levied on each khunwan (120 pounds) of grain reaped by the farmer, and the subsequent extortions on that and every other article of commerce or subsistence are enormous.

The principal articles of home produce exported from Sinde are rice, ghee, hides, shark-fins, potash, saltpetre, assafœtida, b'dellium, madder, frankincense, Tatta cloths, horses, indigo, oleaginous and other seeds. The exports from Sinde to Bombay are shark-fins and flesh, b'dellium, ghee, potash, saltpetre, hides, oil of sesame, wheat, assafœtida, munjeet, sirshif oil, raisins, almonds, colouring plants, pistachio-nuts and flowers, shawls, cloths, mustard, wild saffron, black cummin-seed from Kerman, white cummin-seed, and chintzes from Sinde and Khorasan. The imports to Sinde from Bombay are white sugar, sugar-candy, steel, iron, tin, tutenague, lead, cochineal, betel-

nut, black pepper, dried coco-nuts, vermilion, red lead, quicksilver, Bengal and China raw silks and cloths, cinnamon, cardamoms, cloves, nutmeg, sandal-wood, ginger, china-ware, pearls, aloes, and amattas.

The intercourse between this territory and the provinces to the northward is chiefly carried on by means of the Indus, which is navigable for small vessels to a great distance from the sea. There are not any established land caravans from Sinde to Mooltan and Cabul, but an intercourse is carried on by travellers and merchants. The East-India Company had formerly a factory in Sinde, with which they carried on a considerable trade, but it was withdrawn, probably owing to the disorderly state and consequent poverty of the country; indeed commerce and agriculture of all descriptions have rapidly declined in Sinde since the accession of the present rapacious rulers. The duties levied on foreign and domestic trade are estimated at two-thirds of the capital employed, and the cultivator is compelled to sell his grain at a low price, to the government, by which it is monopolized, and subsequently re-sold at a considerable profit. In addition to this evil extensive tracts of the best land on the banks of the Indus are set apart and converted into wastes and jungles for the preservation of game, the ameers being, unfortunately for the country, most passionately addicted to hunting. The British mission in 1809 saw scarcely any thing deserving the name of cultivation from Corachie to Helliah, on the road to Hyderabad, a distance of 150 miles.

The internal government of Sinde is a military despotism. In 1809 the supreme authority was vested in three brothers of the Talpoory family, whose names were Meer Gholaum Ali, Meer Kurreem Ali, and Meer Murad Ali. The oldest brother, Meer Gholaum Ali, had the title of hakim or ruler of Sinde, and was considered the head of the government. There were two other brothers of the ruling family, Meer Sohrab and Meer Thara, who, although not ostensibly partakers of the supreme authority, possessed large tracts of territory, and exercised every function of sovereignty within their respective limits.

These ameers belong to the Mahomedan sect of Shiahs, but they are remarkably tolerant both to the Soonees and to the adherents of Brahma. The Mahomedan population compose the military strength of the country, and during pacific intervals are employed as husbandmen, artificers, and menial servants; the internal commerce being almost exclusively carried on by Hindoos. The great bulk of the population consists of Hindoos, Juts, and Baloochies. The Hindoos were probably the aborigines, the Juts the descendants of early converted Hindoos, and the Baloochies strangers. The majority of the Mahomedans are of the Soonee faith, although the ameers and some men of rank be Shiahs. Although Sinde is now but scantily peopled, it appears at some former period to have been much more thickly settled; and the great number of tombs and burial-grounds scattered over the country, where no population is now visible, is quite extraordinary. From Tatta to Hyderabad the country is almost destitute of human beings, there being only one village on the whole route.

Sinde is a province swarming with military adventurers, from whence the native powers of Hindostan have long been supplied with infantry mercenaries. The national armies of the principality are usually collected from various tribes, who hold lands on a military tenure from the ameers, at whose summons they are obliged to bring their respective quotas into the field. These tribes are reckoned forty-two in number, many of which have retained their distinctive appellations since the first Mahomedan invasion, when they consisted principally of adventurers from the lofty mountains of Baloochistan, except the Jokia and Jut races, which are both of Sindean origin. The ameers

of Sinde collectively can bring into the field an army of 36,000 men, composed of irregular cavalry, armed with matchlocks, swords and shields, and intended to act when required as infantry, the whole Sindean army being accustomed to dismount occasionally and fight on foot. The Sindean cavalry are but indifferently mounted, and although stouter, are not such good swordsmen as the natives of Upper Hindostan. The infantry resemble the Persians and Arabs, and, like most Hindostany soldiers, are overloaded with arms; besides a sword, shield and dagger, the cavalry carry matchlocks. Although the produce of Sinde be at present equal to three times the consumption of its inhabitants, it is nevertheless badly cultivated, thinly peopled, and wholly unequal to the subsistence of any formidable force. An invading army might be conveniently opposed on the banks of the Indus, and by proper precautions reduced to extreme distress for want of provisions; but it is not probable that any force of magnitude will ever select so barren and unpromising a route.

After the death of Meer Futteh Ali, his then surviving brothers divided the territorial possessions and revenues; the oldest, Meer Gholaum Ali, receiving one-half as the ostensible head of the government, and bound to defray the permanent civil and military expenses of the state. These charges, however, are inconsiderable, as during a cessation of hostilities very few soldiers are retained. As is the practice in many other Eastern principalities, the hoarding of treasure is a favourite maxim of state policy; the amount of specie in different forts is consequently supposed to be great, a very small proportion of what is received being ever permitted to enter again into circulation.

The districts subject to the authority of Meer Sohrab are situated in the north-eastern quarter of Sinde, and yield a revenue of about five lacks and a half of rupees per annum. His system of government is described as milder and more favourable to agriculture and commerce than that of the principal ameers; his troops were computed at from 4,000 to 5,000 men. The authority of Meer Tharah extends over districts east of the Indus; his revenue does not exceed three lacks of rupees, but his country is improving; his troops have been estimated at 6,000 men.

The men of Sinde are generally of a middle size, well-made, and stronger than the more southern natives of India. Their complexion is a dark tawny, with black eyes and eyebrows, and uncommonly good teeth; like the Seiks they allow their hair to grow, and wear such large turbans, that some of them contain eighty yards of muslin. A great majority of the Mahomedans are Soonees, and mostly of the Haneefee sect, but they have few religious prejudices. The females are distinguished for beauty of face and symmetry of person, yet they are not doomed to strict seclusion; and the dancing-girls of Sinde, in figure, manner, and appearance, greatly excel those of Upper Hindostan. When the missionaries examined a translation of the Lord's Prayer in the northern Sindy language, they found that of the thirty-two words of the latter twenty-four agreed with the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens, and of the southern Sindy (which differs in termination from the northern) twenty-four words were found to be radically the same as in the Bengalese and Hindostany examples.

The whole of this territory swarms with mendicants in a state of the utmost apparent misery; but here also, as in other Mussulman countries, a class of sturdy beggars are seen, pretenders to be Seids or descendants of the prophet, and demanding charity in the most peremptory and arrogant manner. These objects of charity frequently go about in parties of seven or eight, soliciting alms on horseback, well dressed, armed, and mounted, with a green flag carried

before them, and when their requests are not complied with they bestow abuse on the obdurate with the most liberal profusion.

Sinde was the first conquest in Hindostan effected by the Mahomedans, it having long preceded their invasions by the route of Attock and Lahore. The caliph Ali sent a general who made some conquests on the borders of Sinde. Moavyiya sent twice his general Amir or Hamir, but after long and bloody conquests he was forced to desist. Under the caliph Walid, the conquest was at last completed by Mahomed Cossim, in the year of the Hijera 99; but on account of the distance, sterility, and natural strength of the country, it did not remain long attached to the throne of Bagdad. Subsequent to this epocha, there appears to have existed two contemporaneous authorities in Sinde, the one a Rajpoot family, and the other a Mahomedan; the latter probably converted from the Hindoo faith, both ruling under the title of jam. The Lomra or Rajpoot race are said to have retained possession for the long period of five centuries, after which it was successively governed by different chiefs, one of whom, Mirza Eesau, of the Turkanny tribe, having called in the Portuguese to his assistance against the soubahdar of Mooltan, they plundered Tatta, then the capital city. Shah Beg one of Sultan Baber's antagonists about A.D. 1535, conquered Sinde and founded a dynasty.

Sinde continued with the Turkannies until the reign of Acber, who despatched an army by the way of Sewistan, which succeeded in subduing it, and from that era it became tributary to the Delhi emperors, who managed it through the medium of a soubahdar resident at Mooltan and Tatta. About A.D. 1737, during the alarm excited by the threatened invasion of Hindostan by Nadir Shah, Mahomed Abassi Caloree of Sewee, availed himself of the apprehensions of the soubahdar of Sinde, and influenced him to consign the government to him for the consideration of three lacks of rupees, which he promised, but never paid. In 1739 Nadir Shah defeated the Calorie chiefs, and obliged them to seek refuge in Amercote, on the borders of the desert, but he afterwards permitted them to resume the government as tributaries.

Mahomed Abassi Caloree (or Calhora) died in 1771, and was succeeded by other princes of the same family until 1779, when a tribe of Baloochy origin named the Talpoories, headed by some of the late ameers, and their oldest brother Futteh Ali Khan, rebelled against the Calorie nabob, and expelled him from the country. The surviving representatives of the Calories had recourse to Timour Shah of Cabul, who under pretence of reinstating them, commenced hostilities against the Talpoory ameers, but desisted for an annual tribute of twelve lacks of rupees, which was regularly paid until the death of that sovereign in 1792. On this event it was reduced to seven lacks, and subsequently, during the civil war of his successors, withheld altogether. The ameers of Sinde being thus relieved from all fears on the side of Cabul, commenced encroachments on their neighbours, wrested Corachie from the chief of Baloochistan, and extended their frontiers on the side of Shekarpoor and Ajmeer.

After the decease of Meer Futteh Ali, the then surviving brothers divided the revenue into four shares; two of which were assigned to Gholaum Ali, the eldest, and one to each of his brothers. At the same time the present remarkable constitution of Sinde was framed, by the conditions of which the three ameers ruled jointly, with succession for their sons to the junior rank. In accordance with this system, on the death of Meer Gholaum, who was killed while hunting in 1812, by the charge of a buck, his two brothers each ascended a step, while his son took the lowest seat in the triumvirate, the whole being arranged without the slightest tumult or bloodshed. The revenues of Sinde during the Calorie dynasty,

were estimated at eighty lacks of rupees; in 1809 they had fallen to forty-three lacks, but in 1813 had again risen to sixty-one lacks.

In 1819 an envoy from Sinde going to Bombay with his escort, being mistaken for a marauder, was attacked by the British troops, and in the scuffle slain. The mistake was immediately explained, and reparation offered to the Sindean chiefs, who for the time appeared entirely satisfied. Soon afterwards, however, they collected troops among the predatory tribes, invaded Cutch, and set the British government at defiance. An army was in consequence assembled under Sir Charles Colville, but the difference was subsequently amicably arranged. In 1821 the Ameers of Sinde sent a letter of condolence to his Majesty on the death of his father, George the Third, lamenting that event, and congratulating his present majesty on his accession. Advantage was taken by the Bombay presidency of this conciliatory overture, and Capt. Sadleir was despatched to Hyderabad, where a new treaty was concluded, the Ameers undertaking to prevent the future recurrence of the Koza robberies, and paying 11,000 rupees for the past, which was returned to them on their delivering up the principal thieves.

This province, although within the limits of Hindostan, is so detached by the main body of the great sandy desert, that it has never taken any decided part in its politics. In case therefore of a war or alliance with its chiefs, a new scene of action would be entered on, in which the sovereigns of Cabul, Baloochistan, and Persia, and other powers adjacent to the Indus, would be the principal performers. We have now a military station within seventy miles of the Sinde frontier, and 150 of its capital. Thus situated, we can never expect to be entirely free from those petty disturbances incidental to the frontiers of all Asiatic empires, to whatever western limit we may advance our boundaries.

The resemblance of this country to Egypt has been often remarked. A smooth fertile plain, bounded on one side by mountains and on the other by a desert; divided by a large river, which forms a sort of delta, as it approaches the sea, and annually inundates the land in the vicinity of its banks. Even in political circumstances they have an accidental resemblance, being both tyrannized over by foreign and barbarous tribes, yielding a reluctant obedience to a distant and disturbed monarchy. Here, however, the comparison ends, as Sinde is placed in the midst of countries destitute of industry, differing little from each other in their wants and productions, and with no conveniences for external trade, while the geographical situation of Egypt between India and the great European market point it out as an emporium of commerce. But no change for the better can be expected in either, while they continue under the sway of their present ignorant and rapacious rulers.—(*Smith, Maxfield, Pottinger, Elphinstone, Rennell, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Sinde River.—This river has its source in the province of Malwa, from a small range of mountains about twelve miles S.W. from the town of Seronge, and after a course of about 200 miles, including windings, falls into the river Jumna. During the rains it swells greatly, but is too rapid for navigation.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sinde Sagor (*Sindhu Sagara*).—This name is applied by Abul Fazel to distinguish the Doab of the Indus and Hydaspes, in the province of Lahore, but it properly refers to the southern portion of that natural division. The little desert of the Indus extends from north to south above 250 miles, but the breadth varies, being in some places not more than thirty, in others above 100 broad. It occupies all that portion of country between the Hydaspes (or Jhylum) and the Indus, which is not overflowed by these rivers, and extends from the lati-

tude of Ooch, where the inundated lands of both join, to the salt range of hills. In fact, three-fourths of this doab, including the district of Augur, come under the description of a desert.

Sinde Sagor is partly possessed by the Seiks and partly by the Afghans, the latter portion being distinguished by the name of Leia, under which head further information will be found. Sinde Singh is the term by which the inhabitants of the districts under the Seiks approaching the Indus are known, and Nakai Singh is the name given to the Seiks who reside in the province of Mooltan. With the leaders of the Seiks in these quarters, the extent of their possessions, or the climate and productions of the country under their rule, we are little acquainted; those in Mooltan, as well as those settled along the banks of the Jhylum, are said to be constantly engaged in predatory warfare, either with the officers of the Afghan government, or other Mahomedan chiefs who have jaghires in the neighbourhood. — (*Elphinstone, Malcolm, &c.*)

SINDIA.—See OOJEIN.

SINDOUSE.—A fort and pergunnah in the province of Agra, district of Etaweh, bounded on the north by the river Jumna, and inhabited by a singularly turbulent race of people. The pergunnah of Sindouse is so much intersected with ravines as wholly to preclude the use of cavalry in pursuing offenders, and to render it a difficult and dangerous service even for infantry. Being almost wholly surrounded by the Maharatta territories south of the Chumbul, criminals have a facility of escape not common in other tracts.

SINDWAH.—A fortress and pass in Candeish, ceded by Holcar at the treaty of Mundessor, along with an extent from the glacis of 2,000 yards; lat. 21° 34′ N., lon. 75° 7′ E.; seventy-five miles W. by N. from Boorhanpoor. The Satpoora mountains here become low, and can be ascended by light carriages. It was the road by which the Pindaries were accustomed to return from their plundering expeditions, although they always suffered severely from Gholaum Naik, a noted Bheel chieftain. The Sindwah pass was formerly the principal channel of communication between Malwa, Candeish, and the Deccan, until it was closed up by the Bheel and Pindary banditties, after which it was carried on by the circuitous route of Asseerghur and Boorhanpoor. In 1818 Holcar's government expressed a strong desire to have this route restored, and the old commercial channels resumed.— (*Sutherland, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SINGAPOOR (*Singhapura*)—An island in the straits of Malacca, situated at the southern extremity of the Malay peninsula; lat. 1° 15′ N., lon. 104′ E. This island was taken possession of by Sir Thomas Raffles on the 26th February 1819, under a treaty concluded with the tomogong or native chief, who held his lands from Mahomed Shah the late sultan of Johore. On examination it was found to be much larger than the charts indicated, yet the total population did not exceed 150 persons, of whom thirty were Chinese. It does not appear that the Dutch ever had any settlement, or exercised any authority over this island, yet the remains of religious buildings and other structures indicated that it had once been more thickly inhabited. Indeed the Malay annals narrate that in A.D. 1252 Sri Iscander Shah, the last Malay prince of Singapoor, being hard pressed by the king of Mojopahit in Java, retired to the mainland on the western coast, where he founded the city Malacca. In 1824 a regular cession in full sovereignty of this and the neighbouring islands for ten miles round it, was obtained from the sultan and tomogong.

Singapoor harbour affords safe anchorage at all seasons, and its position is favourable for commanding the navigation of the straits, the di-

rect tract being within five miles distance. The town stands on a point of land near the west end of a bay, between which there is a creek, where native craft, or European vessels of small draught, may anchor close to the town, and on the eastern side there is a deep inlet well adapted to shelter native boats. The rise of the tide is about ten or twelve feet, the variation of the compass 2° 9′ E. West of the creek are low rounded sand-hills, interspersed with spots of level ground. The principal rock is red sandstone, which changes in some parts to a breccia or conglomerate, containing large fragments and crystals of quartz. This settlement has hitherto proved healthy, yet it combines many circumstances that ought to render it the reverse: an inter-tropical climate, a constantly high temperature, rapid and constant evaporation, an extensive chain of saline and fresh-water marshes, under the influence of an almost vertical sun, luxuriant and rank vegetation, occasionally checked by drought, and a profusion of vegetable and animal matter in all stages of putrefaction.

Singapoor has hitherto, and must for some years continue to be a mere port of depôt, having as yet no native productions to export; but the increase of its population and transit commerce, within the short space of five years, is quite unexampled in history. Its condition in 1819, when first taken possession of, is described above; the following was its condition in 1824. The total tonnage cleared out that year amounted to 1,552 vessels, of which 249 were square-rigged, 1,303 native craft. The European departures for China were fifty-one, the native junks eight, the Siamese junks forty-four, those of Cochin China and Cambodia twenty-six. The value of exports in 1824 amounted to 6,604,601 Spanish dollars; of the imports 6,914,536 dollars. The importation of European piece goods in 1824 was 3,131 cases, that of Indian piece goods having declined; woollens 485 bales, opium 1,203 chests.

Population of Singapoor on the 30th December 1824.

Europeans	84
Native Christians	132
Armenians	9
Arabians	10
Natives of the Deccan	690
Do. Hindostan	226
Malays	5,130
Buggesses	1,704
Javanese	38
Chinese	3,828
Total	11,851

Consisting of 8,620 males, and only 3,231 females. Indeed there were only 267 Chinese women to 3,561 men, and the purchase of females from the neighbouring islands to supply the deficiency was prohibited. To the above must be added the garrison and their followers, amounting to 368 individuals, and a floating population of about 2,500, making a total population of 14,719, distributed as follows:

The central portion of the settlement, where the Europeans dwell, contained only 668 inhabitants; the south-west quarter 4,226, of whom above one-half where Chinese. The native town contained a population of 3,063, of whom two-thirds were natives of the archipelago. The establishment formed in 1822 at the new harbour, and the cluster of islets to the westward, contained 1,609 inhabitants, nearly all Malays. A population of about 2,200 was scattered over the interior of the island in plantations and gardens, to the depth of above three miles from the sea-coast. The whole number of dwellings was 911, and the price of land in convenient spots had risen enormously. In January 1826 a Chinese junk arrived, with 870 emigrants, and in February another with 1,050, the passage money from China being only six dollars. They are the most valuable of all the classes, as it has been found from experience that the labour, industry, and capacity of a Chinese, are at least equal to those of any two other Asiatic natives. The total number of

Chinese emigrants that arrived at Singapoor in 1825 and 1826 amounted to 5,513 persons. About 3,000 of these distributed themselves in Rhio and the neighbouring isles, the remainder settled in the British territories.

The agar-agar of the Malays (the *fucus saccharinus*) abounds on the coral shoals in the vicinity of Singapoor, and forms a bulky article of native export for the Chinese market, where it fetches, including the freight, from six to eight dollars per pecul. When dry and ready packed for exportation, it may be purchased here for three or four dollars per pecul. By the Chinese it is converted into glue, paint, &c.: besides which it is used for glazing their cotton manufactures and sacrifice paper. A small portion of the finest sort is made into a fine jelly, which on being cut up and preserved in syrup, makes a delicious sweetmeat. The reefs and shoals exposed by low tides afford luxuriant crops of this weed, which in its native state resembles a species of fern, but the finest sort is procured on the coast of Billiton isle, and brings more than double the price of any other. The common harvest amounts to about 6,000 peculs, which in favourable seasons may be doubled. —(*Singapoor Chronicle, Raffles, Capt. Ross, Finlayson, &c.*)

SINGARAPETTAH.—A town in the Barramahal district, situated about 110 miles travelling distance from Pondicherry. Near to this place there is a fine embanked reservoir.

SINGARUMCOTTA (*Singha rama cata*).—A town in the northern Circars, twenty-four miles N. by W. from Vizagapatam; lat. 18°3′ N., lon. 83° 20′ E.

SINGBOOM (*singha bumi*). — A territory in the province of Orissa, governed by a raja independent within his own limits, but under political subordination to the British government. It is bounded on three sides by the districts of Chuta Nagpoor, Midnapoor, and Mohurbunge, and on the south by that of Kunjeur. Between Singboom there is a saul forest extending into Sumbhulpoor, which has been estimated to exceed thirty miles in length, the trees of which are said to be of remarkable loftiness and dimensions. The zemindars in this and other tracts on the Midnapoor frontier were formerly many of them robbers by birth, kept robbers in their pay, and have still a hankering after their old trade. While tributary to the Maharattas they were under no internal control, and were at home magistrates, with unlimited powers of life and death. In 1821 the population of Singboom was estimated at 66,227 persons.

A tribe named Lurkhas inhabited a portion of this division, situated in a valley between two ranges of hills watered by the rivers Roro and Kurkye, and named after them Lurkhacole. In 1820 they were in a manner for the first time discovered by accident, in consequence of Major Roughsedge's detachment marching through the country, on which occasion they committed depredations, and killed several of the camp followers. A force large enough to prove that resistance was hopeless was detached against them; yet they did resist, and fought most desperately with bows, arrows, battle-axes, and stones, until the loss of many of their warriors, and all their villages and granaries, compelled them to submit to the terms proposed for their future regulation. It is to be regretted such extremities were necessary, as from the flourishing condition of their small community they are likely, under a moderate government, to prove valuable subjects.

These Lurkhas or Lurkhacoles are probably a branch of the great Gond family, and appear to be widely scattered, as they are also found in the hills immediately west of Chunar about the Kemoor ghaut. They burn their dead and bury their ashes. Their religion is not yet ascertained, but they do not appear to have any of the Hindoo scruples with respect to food, neither have the dogmas of the Arabian prophet penetrated among

them. Their traffic consists in the barter of pulse, mustard-seed, sesamum, and ghee, for salt and coarse cloths, with the inhabitants of the neighbouring pergunnahs. In 1823 Raja Goonsham Singh acknowledged subjection to the British government, and requested assistance against the depredations of the Coles.—(*Capt. Jackson, Public Journals, &c.*)

SINGBOOM *(singha bhumi, the land of lions).*—A town in the province of Gundwana, the ancient capital of the preceding division; lat. 22° 31′ N., lon. 85° 40′ E., 105 miles W. from Midnapoor. Notwithstanding the etymology given above of the name of this town and territory, it is notorious that there never was a lion seen within the limits of either.

SINGHEA.—A town in the province of Bahar, situated on the east side of the Gunduck, seventeen miles N. from the city of Patna; lat. 25° 52′ N., lon. 85° 15′ E. Near to this place is the site of an ancient city, where a remarkable pillar stands; and two days journey further up the Gunduck, near a place called Kesserah, is a remarkable edifice, which appears to have been originally a cylinder placed on the frustrum of a cone, for the purpose of being seen at a distance. Both the cone and cylinder are of brick, and appear solid throughout.—(*Reuben Burrows, &c.*)

SINGHERICONDA. — A village of about fifty Brahmins' huts in the Northern Carnatic, ten miles south from Ongole; lat. 15° 5′ N., lon. 79° 59′ E. This place stands at the base of a hill, having a pagoda on the summit, dedicated to Narasingha, and apparently of some antiquity. The river Maner flows to the south with a broad but shallow stream.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SINGHUR.—A strong hill in the province of Aurungabad, about twelve miles south of Poona, and in the vicinity of Poorunder. The fort of Singhur stands on the summit of a mountain, which terminates to the west one of the ranges of hills between Poona and the Neera river. Its altitude is very great, and the access to it along pathways on high precipitous ridges which ascend from the south and eastward. Its greatest extent from east to west is 1,000 yards, and from north to south about 800 yards. Its shape being very irregular, the area of the interior is confined, and mostly occupied by rugged eminences. This is one of the cautionary fortresses surrendered by the Peshwa in 1817, as a pledge for his sincerity, and subsequently restored to him. It was captured in 1818 by a detachment under General Pritzler.

SINGOLE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles N.N.W. from Gurrah; lat. 23° 29′ N., lon. 79° 51′ E.

SINGROWLA.—A small division in the province of Gundwana, bounded on the east by the British district of Ramghur and zemindary of Palamow. The Singrowla raja's territories commence on the north-west at a narrow defile in the Bickery hills called Bulghaut. In this tract between the hills there are extensive valleys, but wild and uncultivated, and frequently covered with forests. A few small villages are scattered over the face of the country, in the vicinity of which some cultivation is seen; but the territory in general is very desolate. Iron is found in abundance, the price being from one rupee and a half to two rupees and a half per eighty pounds, according to quality. In this miserable region several Hindoo mythological excavations and images have been discovered, but of a very inferior description to those seen in the Deccan. Singrowla is still possessed by various petty and independent native chiefs, the principal of whom is the raja of Shawpoor. The principal quarry of corundum perhaps in India, is within the territory of the Singrowla raja, about eight miles south from Sahapoor, where that chief usually resides, and about 120 miles from Mirzapoor, on the banks of the

Ganges. The quantity brought from thence to Mirzapoor is considerable, and it is from hence that the rest of the more eastern provinces are supplied. The vicinity of the quarry is inhabited by the rude tribe named Kol, to whom the traders carry a little salt, cloth, and various other trifles, and in return get iron and corundum.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

Singpoor.—A town belonging to the British government in the province of Malwa, situated in the Bareerewah river, seven miles from Conailly.

Sinkawan.—A port in Borneo, situated about thirty miles to the south of Sambas, and three miles up a small river leading to that part of the interior where the Chinese employed in the gold mines about Montradak are so numerous that they have been estimated at 60,000 persons. It is the chief mart for procuring gold, and the best market for opium and piece goods, surpassing both Sambas and Pontiana. In A.D. 1820 disputes arose between the Chinese miners (governed by their own captain) and the Dutch, who in 1823 proclaimed this port in a state of blockade.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Sinnore.—A town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the steep banks of the Nerbudda, but with an excellent flight of steps down to the water; lat. 21° 56′ N., lon. 73° 35′ E., twenty-six miles E.N.E. from Broach.

Sinpoor.—A town, or rather the ruins of one, in the province of Gundwana, division of Choteesghur, situated on the right bank of the Mahanuddy, twenty miles north of Aring. This is said to have been the capital of the ancient dynasty of Byram Deo, and the ruins of numerous temples and other buildings scattered over this part of the country indicate a former state of prosperity, and a more numerous population than is at present to be found.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

Sion.—A small town and fort on the island of Bombay, about eight miles from the presidency, at the opposite extremity of the island. It stands on the top of a small conical hill, where it commands the passage from Bombay to Salsette, and was of importance when the Maharattas possessed that island. At the foot of the little hill of Sion is the causeway or vellard built by Mr. Duncan across a small arm of the sea which separated the two islands. It is well constructed of stone, and has a drawbridge in the centre. This causeway was begun in 1797, and finished in 1805, at an expense of 50,575 rupees.—(*M. Graham, &c.*)

Siphabad.—A town in the province of Delhi, five miles N.W. from Pattiallah; lat. 30° 21′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E.

Sipra River.—A river in the province of Malwa, which has its source three miles west of the small town of Tillore, and after a winding northerly course passes to the west of Oojein, and ultimately joins the Chumbul, twelve miles west of Gungrar. During the rains it swells to a great height, and frequently devastates the adjacent villages; but, on account of its rapidity, is not navigable at any season of the year. It forms the line of demarcation between Dewass and the possessions of Holcar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sirdang.—A small river on the east coast of Sumatra, on the banks of which in 1822 were many villages, containing altogether a population of about 3,000 Malays and 8,000 Battas. The authority of the sultan Besar extended from Sunjei Tuan to Manchong along the coast, which is said to have been originally peopled by emigrants from Menancabow. The articles of trade here are nearly the same as at Delli and Buluchina, pepper being the principal export; opium and cotton goods the most considerable imports. Quail-fighting is a favourite amusement about Sirdang; a good fighting quail will in

consequence fetch at least eight dollars. Inland are various tribes of Battas, some addicted to canabalism, others not.—(*Anderson, &c.*)

SIRDHAR.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated near its centre; lat. 22° 3′ N., lon. 71° 5′ E. This was formerly a place of consequence, and controlled 700 villages; but the possessions of the family have gradually diminished, and Raujcote has become the seat of government.

SIRGOOJAH.—A large district in the province of Gundwana, situated about the twenty-third degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Palamow and Singboom; on the east by Jushpoor; on the south by Odeypoor, and on the west by Choteesghur. A considerable portion of this space is surrounded by a range of mountains from 1,000 to 1,200 feet high, the access to which is through difficult passes that might be easily defended. That Sirgoojah is elevated above the adjacent countries is proved by the rivers flowing from it in opposite directions, some north to the Sone, others south to the Mahanuddy. The soil is singularly rich, and so well supplied with moisture that even the tops of the hills are marshy. Mohree is the most valuable portion of Sirgoojah. It also commands the Pushtoo pass, the only one into Bahar from this quarter, and which might be made passable at a small expense. The principal rivers are the Hudsoo and the Rhern.

The soil of Sirgoojah resembles that of Ramghur. In some parts it is sandy, and contains a smaller proportion of clay and gravel. Its produce differs little from that of Ramghur, to which it adjoins, except that in the valleys it yields vast quantities of tickoor or curcuma augustifolia, from the roots of which the natives prepare a farinaceous powder, scarcely to be distinguished from the arrow-root of the West Indies. In this district there is a remarkably hot-spring, the temperature of which is 186° Fahrenheit.

In 1802 this district was supposed to contain twenty-one dhupdoors, or territorial subdivisions, averaging 400 villages each; but three-fourths of the country were described as mountainous, jungly, and nearly in a state of nature. The obedience paid to the Nagpoor raja was very slight, and the tribute, only 3,000 rupees per annum, very irregularly paid for so vast an extent of country. It does not appear that the Sirgoojah country then contained any towns of note, or even fortified posts. In 1802 the British government was obliged to march a detachment into Sirgoojah, to repress the repeated inroads from that country; but all further interference appears to have been suspended until 1813, when Bulbudder Sahy, the legitimate raja, who had then attained years of discretion, applied for assistance to quell the rebellion of his uncle Singhram Singh, which was refused. The disaffected jaghiredars gaining consequence from this apparent inability, surrounded the palace and put to death the spiritual director of the raja, who with his mother, would probably have shared the same fate, but for the interposition of Major Roughsedge, who sent a party of sepoys to protect them. Raja Bulbudder Sahy and his son, the heir apparent, died of the small-pox in 1818, by which catastrophe the direct line of the Sirgoojah family became extinct. In the same year the sovereingty of Sirgoojah was ceded to the British government by the Nagpoor state, and arrangements are still in progress for its settlement.

The construction of practicable roads is one of the greatest benefits that the British government can confer on the Sirgoojans, and these were immediately commenced after the country had been surveyed in 1819. The distance from Midnapoor was found to be 279 miles, from Nagpoor 369, total 648; being much less to the latter place than by the circuitous routes of Benares, Allahabad, and Bundelcund. At present Sirnadu is one of the largest and most populous villages. In 1823 the

tribute of 3,000 rupees due to the British government was remitted, on account of the impoverished condition of the country, and the same year Lal Ameer Singh was raised to the throne, in consequence of the secession of Ranny Bishen Cooar. —(*Public MS. Documents, R. B. Ferguson, Breton, &c.*)

Sirgoojah.—This town, the original capital of the preceding district, formerly stood in lat. 23° 5′ N., lon. 83° 30′ E; but in 1822 scarcely a vestige remained of its prior existence. Three stages to the south-east is the mountain and table-land of Mynpat, which has an elevation of between 2,000 and 3,000 feet, and consequently a moderate temperature compared with the plains below.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Sirhind.—A town in the province of Delhi, formerly the capital of a territorial subdivision, of which a large proportion is now comprehended in the district of Saharunpoor, and the rest possessed by the Seiks. About A.D. 1357 Sultan Feroze the third of Delhi cut several canals from the Jumna and Sutuleje, in order to fertilize this naturally arid country, and afterwards built a fort at Sirhind, but both the fort and canals have long disappeared. The city of Sirhind itself has long been a scene of desolation, it never having recovered from the dreadful ravages of the Seik Bairaggie, Banda, about A.D. 1707, who is stated to have then not only destroyed the mosques, but to have levelled its palaces and public buildings with the ground. At present Pattiallah is the largest and most flourishing town, and next to it Thanusar, which is still held in high religious veneration by the Hindoos, as is also the feeble and temporary current of the Sereswati. In March 1809 Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore gave up the forts he occupied on the left bank of the Sutuleje, but he still exacts certain feudal duties from such Seik chiefs as also hold lands on the north-western side of that river.

By Abul Fazel, Sirhind is described as a famous city, containing the delightful gardens of Hafez Rehneh, but it now presents only a shapeless mass of extensive ruins. In the neighbourhood are numerous mangoe groves, and also some excellent tanks of water. Between this town and Kurnal are extensive plains, containing the towns of Paniput and Kurnal, and renowned for having been the theatre of many battles, both in ancient and modern times. Whether Delhi, Agra, or Kanoje were the temporary capital, Sirhind was the route from Persia and Tartary by which the conquerors of Hindostan advanced. In 1809 it belonged to a Seik chieftian named Bingh Singh.—(*11th Register, Rennell, &c.*)

Sirmore.—A principality in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna rivers. On the north it is separated from Bussaher by the river Paber; on the west it is bounded by Hindoor and the Barrah Tuckrah; on the south by the Seik possessions in the Delhi province; and on the east by Gurwal and the river Jumna. It is subdivided into pergunnahs, and each pergunnah into patis or estates. With the exception of the Kardeh Doon this tract is covered with mountains, extending in ranges radiating from the Chur, much indented and crowned with peaks. The Chur peak is 10,588 feet in height, and although sixty miles from the nearest summit of the snowy chain, is higher than any intervening point. The snow lies on the Chur peak until June, and it is said little or no rain ever falls there.

This principality has for many years been governed by a race of Rajpoot princes, said to have come originally from Jesselmere, who long exercised a paramount authority over many others. In 1775 Raja Kineh Singh died, leaving four sons, of whom Kurrum Perkaush, the third, succeeded regularly on the death of his two elder brothers; but in consequence of his misconduct, and other events incident to native communities, he was repeatedly de-

throned and restored. When the British entered the country in 1814, against the Gorkhas, they found most of the hill chiefs had been either banished or degraded, and many were in a state of the most extreme indigence. After the expulsion of the Gorkhas, it was determined to exclude Kurrum Perkaush on account of the infamy of his conduct, and place his young son, Futteh Singh, under the guardianship of his mother, on the throne, which was done accordingly. The country left in his possession, together with the duties collected at the great fair of Tilakpoor, were expected to yield 40,000 rupees per annum, clear of all expenses, and these resources were known to be capable of improvement. In settling the limits the Tamas or Tonse river was selected as a marked boundary, beyond which the British government could claim nothing to the westward, nor that of Sirmore to the east.

Among other strange practices it is a usual custom in Sirmore to lay children (especially infants), while asleep during the heats, with their heads under little rills of the coldest water, without any bad effect; indeed by the natives it is a process highly estimated. When Captain Ross received charge of the Sirmore treasury in 1818, it owed 11,000 rupees at eighteen per cent. interest; but when delivered over to the young Raja Futteh Perkaush in 1823, it had 30,000 rupees to its credit, a sum which though small, must be considered of importance with reference to the total amount of the Sirmore revenue, and still more so as furnishing the first instance upon record of a Sirmore raja free from debt and financial embarrassment.—(*Sir David Ochterlony, Public MS. Documents, Capt. Rodney Blane, Capt. Birch, Govan, &c.*)

SIRNADU.—A large and populous village in the province of Gundwana, division of Sirgoojah, situated at the bottom of a ghaut or pass. This is the residence of the principal jaghiredar, who holds part of his estate on the tenure of keeping the pass in a defensible state.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SIRRENAGUR (*Sri nagara*). — A town in the province of Gundwana, district of Gurrah, 130 miles N. by E. from Nagpoor; lat. 22° 57′ N., lon. 79° 55′ E. In 1818 a party of the Nagpoor raja's troops were defeated here.

SIRSAH.—A town in the Bhatty country, in the province of Ajmeer, situated about thirty miles to the westward of Futtehabad, within which distance there are not above ten villages. From Sirsah it is sixteen miles to Raneah, with two villages, Jemar and Raypoor, on the road. Forty-five miles to the westward of Raneah lies Bhatneer. At Sirsah there is a ghurry or mud fort, much out of repair, which, however, in 1803, withstood an attack of the Maharatta infantry, assisted by one of the Begum Somroo's corps. — (*Archibald Seton, &c.*)

SIRSAWA.—A town in the province of Delhi, seven miles N.W. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 1′ N., lon. 77° 24′ E.

SITLAHA.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, division of Rewah, situated on the bank of the river Tonse below the ghauts, about fifty-seven miles S. by W. from the city of Allahabad. Here is the common ferry, where travellers proceeding to Rewah cross the Tonse; and on the margin of the river opposite to Sitlaha there is a small castle, rudely built of stone.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SITTIVACCA.—The name of a small town in Ceylon, formerly noted for being the chief scene of intercourse, friendly or hostile, between the Candians and their European neighbours; lat. 6° 57′ N., lon. 80° 7′ E., twenty-three miles E. from Columbo. There is here a ferry over a considerable river of the same name with the town. Sittivacca was once a royal residence, and among the jungles the ruins of an old fort and some other buildings

may still be traced; but the common clay-built houses of the original town have so wholly disappeared, that it has almost ceased to exist.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Sivana Samudra. — An island formed by the Cavery in North Coimbatoor, about nine miles in length by one in breadth, and remarkable as the site of the ancient Hindoo city of Ganga Para, and for the vicinity of two cataracts of the Cavery, of extraordinary grandeur.

Here are the ruins of a bridge, once 300 yards in length, across the southern branch of the Cavery, constructed on the principle of the bridges described under the head of Seringapatam, with nearly 100 pillars in each range. Directly opposite are the nearly obliterated remains of the southern gate of a wall that surrounded the city, to which there was a flight of steps. The place is enveloped in the thickest forests, and the interior is now a jungle of long grass, with many banyan trees of great size. The principal street may still be traced, extending from north to south about one mile. There are here the ruins of many Hindoo temples, great and small, and much sculpture of various sorts. In one apartment there is a statue of Vishnu, seven feet long, in the best style of Indian carving. The figure is thick, with a pyramidical cap, the eyes closed, and seven cobra capella snakes forming a canopy over his head. The apartments are small and dark, and must be examined with torches, the principal statue being in the remotest chamber.

The cataract of Gangana Chuki is on the northern branch of the Cavery, and may be conveniently viewed from the vicinity of a little hermitage about a mile from the north-eastern gate of the city. This branch of the river is subdivided into two lesser ramifications, a short distance above the fall. The nearest, and by much the largest of these streams is broken by projecting masses of rock into one cataract of prodigious volume, and three or four smaller torrents. The first plunges into the ravine below, from a height variously estimated at from 100 to 150 feet, while the others, impeded in their course by the intervening rocks, work their way, with many fantastic evolutions, to a distance of about 200 feet from the base of the precipice, where the whole unite, the other detached portion of the river precipitating itself at the same time in two columns from a cliff about 200 feet high, nearly at right angles with the principal fall. The surrounding scenery is wild, and the whole presents a very imposing spectacle, especially during the height of the rains.

The second cataract is formed by the southern arm of the Cavery, at a spot called Birra Chuki, about a mile from the fall above described. The channel of the river here is spread out to a magnificent expanse, and its stream divided into no less than ten distinct torrents, which fall with infinite variety of configuration over a broken precipice of more than 100 feet, presenting no single body of water equal in volume to the main fall at Gangani Chuki; but the whole forming an amphitheatre of cataracts, meeting the eye in every direction, along a sweep of probably ninety degrees, and combined with scenery of such sequestered wildness, that for picturesque effect it is perhaps without parallel in the world.

In 1820 the island of Samudra was granted by the Madras presidency for thirty years to a native speculator, who engaged to clear the island, replace the bridge, and repair the temples. The revenue previously yielded did not amount to more than twenty-eight pagodas per annum. In 1820 a new bridge was completed, 1,000 feet long, thirteen broad, and twenty-three high, planned by Ramaswamy Moodely, and completed at his sole risk and expense.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Soab.—A considerable village in the province of Agra belonging to the raja of Jeypoor, situated on a

small eminence, about seventy miles travelling distance S.W. by W. from the city of Jeypoor.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Soanghur.—A town in the province of Candeish, 110 miles E. by S. from Surat; lat. 21° 4′ N., lon. 74° 50′ E.

Sodera.—A town in the province of Lahore, fifty-nine miles N. from the city of Lahore; lat. 32° 26′ N., lon. 73° 59′ E.

Sohagepoor.—A subdivision of the Gundwana province, intersected by the Sone river, and reaching nearly to the source of that stream, at the temple of Omerkuntuc. In ancient times this territory composed part of the Hindoo state of Gurrah; but during the reign of Aurengzebe it was formally annexed to the soubah of Allahabad, although only subjected in name to the Mogul empire. It has, however, occasionally paid tribute to its more powerful neighbours, and latterly was considered as a regular appendage to the dominions of Nagpoor, until ceded to the British in 1818. The town of Sohagepoor stands in lat. 23° 28′ N., lon. 81° 40′ E., sixty-five miles N.N.E. from Mundlah.

Sohait.—A town in the province of Malwa, the capital of a pergunnah belonging to Sindia, but rented by Zalim Singh. In 1820 the town contained about 6,000 inhabitants.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sohaul.—A town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-seven miles S.S.E. from Callinjer; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 80° 49′ E.

Sohna.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-eight miles S. by W. from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 21′ N., lon. 76° 50′ E.

Solak.—A Tartar village in Tibet, district of Spiti, and situated on the banks of the Spiti; lat. 32° 5′ N.

Solapoor (*Salapura*).—A district in the province of Aurungabad, situated at the south-eastern extremity, between the seventeenth and eighteenth degrees of north latitude. This territory is fertile and well irrigated, but as yet little known. It is traversed from north to south by the Seena river, and bounded on the west by the Beema. The principal towns are Solapoor and Inhole.

Solapoor.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, the capital of the preceding district, sixty-five miles N. by E. from the ancient city of Bejapoor; lat. 17° 40′ N., lon. 76° 3′ E. The fort of Solapoor is an oblong of considerable area, with a wall and fausse bray of substantial masonry, flanked by capacious round towers. A broad and deep wet ditch surrounds the place, and the north and east sides are covered by an extensive pettah surrounded by a good wall. To the southward communicating with the ditch is a tank, surrounded on three sides by a mound, which in its extent forms a respectable breast-work to the garrison. This place was taken in 1818, after an obstinate defence, by a detachment under Sir Thomas Munro, and since the annexation of the southern Maharatta country has become an important military station.—(*Blacker, &c.*)

Soledew.—A town in the province of Gujerat, six miles west of Duryawud; lat. 24° 6′ N., lon. 74° 26′ E., 750 feet above the level of the sea.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Soliman Mountains.—A range of high mountains in Afghanistan, running nearly north and south, situated to the west of the Indus, between the twenty-ninth and thirty-fourth degrees of north latitude. The ridge commences at the lofty peak named the Suffaid Coh, or white mountain, from the perpetual snow that crowns its summit. By the Afghans it is named Speenghur, which has the same import in the Pushtoo language that Suffaid Coh has in Persian. The tukhté Soliman, or throne of Solomon, was estimated in 1809, by Lieut. Macartney, at 12,831 feet.

Solo (*or Sura carta*).—A large

town in the island of Java, the capital of the susuhunan or emperor; lat. 7° 35′ S., lon. 110° 55′ E., sixty-one miles S.S.E. from Samarang. This is a large and populous place, intersected by broad shaded avenues or streets, extending at right angles. The crattan, where the emperor resides, is very spacious, and comprises many buildings within its area. The chiefs and nobility dwell in villas in the neighbourhood, surrounded by high walls. The European fort and town are very neat, and in 1815, although within 800 yards of the crattan, contained a large British garrison. Suracarta, however, may rather be termed an assemblage of numerous villages, than what in Europe would be called a town. A fine river, navigable during the rains, flows past, and afterwards falls into the harbour of Gressie. In A.D. 1742 Cartasura was abandoned, and the seat of government removed to this town. In 1815 its population was estimated at 105,000 persons.

The era of Javanese history, of which the chronology is tolerably well ascertained, goes as far back as 600 years. The present susuhunan, who passes for the lineal descendant of the first monarch, is the fifty-eighth human birth that has sat on the throne. Prior to the reign of this dynasty was that of their devatas or demi-gods, among whom are reckoned the patriarch Adam and his son Seth; in the same list with whom the Hindoo triad Brahma, Vishnu, and Mahadeva are found. Following these are certain persons whom we may conjecture to have been deities worshipped by the Javanese, before the introduction of either the Hindoo or Mahomedan religions. Prior to the introduction of the latter this people were brave and enterprizing, and about A.D. 1400, besides possessing a great portion of Java, their power was predominant in the Eastern isles, their conquests extending to Sumatra, Borneo, and even to the Moluccas. They became known to Europeans only in the decline of their power, and suffered greatly by the never-ceasing encroachments of the Dutch.

The native provinces in Java are divided between the susuhunan and sultan, agreeably to the settlement of 1754; but their territories are so intermingled that it is impossible to discriminate them geographically. In 1815, according to a census taken by the British government, the native province of Solo or Suracarta contained 972,727 inhabitants, of which number 2,435 were Chinese. A considerable part of the Mataram province and adjacent districts towards the south having been ceded by the predecessors of the present susuhunan in 1752 to prince Mangku Nagara, are still exclusively enjoyed by his successor Prangavedono. The government of the susuhunan is a pure, unmixed despotism, there being no hereditary rank, for not only honours and posts originate from his authority, but also the possession of landed property and its cultivators, which are bestowed and resumed at pleasure. The highest executive officer or prime minister is the raden adepati, who usually rules the kingdom, while his nominal master is satisfied with the flattery, pomp, and luxury of his seraglio.

The susuhunan was implicated in the conspiracy that took place in 1815 among the British sepoys in Java. The intimacy appears to have commenced from his attending the ceremonies of their religious worship, which were Hindoo, and also presenting them with several idols of their deities which had been preserved in his family. The conspirators flattered him (a Mahomedan) as the descendant of the great Rama, and a deliberate plot was arranged, the object of which was to place the European provinces once more under a Hindoo sovereignty, in which case the Javanese, whose faith hangs very loosely on them, would probably have relapsed en masse to their old Brahminical superstitions.

The susuhunan of Suracarta or Solo died in 1820, in the thirty-third year of his reign, leaving fifty-six

children, and 146 grandchildren. His successor, Abdul Rehmen, died in 1823.—(*Raffles, Thorn, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Solor Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, separated from Floris or Endé by the straits of Floris, and from Sabrao by a narrow strait. In length it may be estimated at thirty miles, by fifteen the average breadth. Provisions are usually plenty here, and iron manufactures in demand.

The inhabitants of Solor consist of two classes, the mountaineers or aborigines, and the maritime inhabitants, who appear to be of the Bajoo or orang laut (men of the sea) tribe, who in 1820 acknowledged subordination to the Dutch factory at Coopang. Little intercourse, except the exchange of a few commodities, subsists between the two races. The articles in demand are the same as at Timor. The chief exports by the Macassar and Sumbhawa prows are wax and fish-oil, which last they procure from a species of black whale about twenty feet long. The inhabitants are principally Mahomedans, but many natives of the north coast have been converted to Christianity by the Portuguese, who still retain some small influence in that quarter of the island. A Dutch interpreter from Coopang is stationed here, to whom the native chiefs of the vicinity in common times yield implicit obedience. In A.D. 1613 the Dutch captured the Portuguese settlements on Solor and Tidore.—(*Malay Miscellanies, Flinders, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Somawarpett.—A village and talook in the province of Mysore and principality of Coorg, separated from Sauthazar talook only by a little rivulet, yet differing in dress, manners and customs. In the last-mentioned the villagers are covered with a blanket, which passes over the left shoulder, leaving the right one entirely naked, and being wrapped round the lower part of the body as low down as the knee, it is tied round the loins by a kind of sash or belt. In the Somawarpett talook the natives wear a white vest covering the whole body down to the knee, and buckled round by a belt. They differ even in their mode of beating the tomtom (drum), and of sounding the colory horn.—(*Colonel Lambton, &c.*)

Sommee.—A town in the province of Gujerat, the modern capital of the Rahdunpoor principality; lat. 23° 32′ N., lon. 71° 43′ E. This is a place of considerable size, and in 1820 was supposed to contain 4,000 houses. It stands in a swamp, is surrounded by many puddles, and during the rainy season is almost under water. To the north-west is a plain destitute of wood, but partly cultivated, and abounding with antelopes.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Somnauth.—See Puttun Somnauth.

Sonail.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 belonged to Holcar, and contained about 4,000 inhabitants. At the above date it exhibited the rare phenomenon of a flourishing town in the province of Malwa; lat. 24° 20′ N., lon. 76° 2′ E.

Sonakau.—A pergunnah in Choteesghur, the zemindar of which, Ram Ray, having become formidable by the supineness of prior governments, continued refractory in 1818, after the rest of the province was tranquillized. He was subsequently reduced to subjection by a military detachment.—(*Major Agnew, &c.*)

Sonara.—A large village in the province of Malwa, belonging to Holcar, near the Kotah frontier, about fifty miles south from the city of Kotah; lat. 24° 35′ N., lon. 75° 57′ E.

Sonda.—A town in the province of Mooltan, situated on the road from Tatta to Hyderabad, a short distance from the banks of the Indus; lat. 24° 58′ N., lon. 68° 27′ E. The banks of the river here are low and swampy, and the depth of water about four fathoms. One mile

N.N.E. from Sonda the Cooperah hills approach the western bank of the Indus, which winds with a serpentine course, and washes their bases for about two miles in extent. —(*Maxfield, &c.*)

Sondwara.—A wild tract in the province of Malwa, which stretches from Auggur to the Chumbul east, and from Gungraur to Oojein north and south. It received its name from a desperate race of plunderers called Sondies, who are sometimes described as Rajpoots, but are in fact the descendants of a mixture of all classes, which the name implies. They first appeared as robbers, gradually rose to be petty zemindars, and during the thirty years' anarchy of Malwa rose to be successful freebooters on a considerable scale. At the peace of Mundessor the Sondie forces were estimated at 1,249 horse and 9,250 foot, all subsisting by plunder, for the possessions they claimed as their own were all in a complete state of desolation. Even after the conquest of Malwa the natural difficulties of the country encouraged the Sondies to persevere in their predatory habits, to repress which a considerable force directed by Sir John Malcolm penetrated the country, and in six weeks captured thirteen strongholds, and expelled the robbers, who finding no refuge in their ancient fastnesses, had no alternative but to deliver up their arms, and make the best settlement they could as cultivators. Since that period the Sondies have been strictly superintended to prevent a revival of their former habits, but at the same time treated with such kindly policy, that Sondwara is fast attaining a state of order and prosperity. At their marriages and feasts the Sondies are aided by Brahmins, but this caste have otherwise but little intercourse with them, and their moral character still continues of the worst description.—(*Malcolm, Prinsep, &c.*)

Sone River *(sona, golden)*.—The rivers Sone and Nerbudda have their sources in the table-land of Omerkuntuc, in the province of Gundwana. The Sone rises on the east side and flows through Pindarah, where being joined by other streams from the north-east side of this mountainous region, it proceeds in a northerly direction through Sohagepoor and Bogalecund, when turning more to the eastward, it pursues its course towards the Ganges. According to Major Reunell's Bengal atlas, their junction formerly took place at Maner, but a tongue of land projecting east has been formed from the Shahabad district, so that Maner is now three miles above the confluence of the two rivers.

The appearance of the Sone during the heats of spring is still more desert than that of the Ganges, and its eastern bank is in many places overwhelmed with barren sandy downs, blown up from its channel. In some part the channel consists of clay and is cultivated. It is no where rocky in this part, but with the sand blown up are intermixed a variety of small pebbles, some of which are very ornamental, and the floods have strength enough to carry some of these almost to a junction with the sacred river. During its course in these districts the Sone receives no branch, but sends off some old channels, that in different parts are called by its name. These, however, are of no use either for irrigation or navigation. For the purposes of the first, the great Sone is too deeply sunk in its channel, and during the rainy season could not be controlled by dams, nor is it of much use for boats. In the Sone the fish are of a much superior quality to those of the Ganges, especially several kinds of carp.

The channel of this river in the province of Bahar is celebrated for its pebbles, many of which are very ornamental and take a high polish, but the major portion consists of water-worn fragments of rude siliceous rocks of various kinds, chiefly quartz, both diaphonous and opaque, and of various colours. All the pebbles have probably been brought from the southern hills by the stream of

this powerful torrent; but by some it is alleged that the waters of the Sone have a petrifying quality.

This immense torrent forms the boundary between the districts of Bahar and Shahabad, for about fifty-five miles of a direct line, from its mouth upwards, and is in general almost equal in size to the bed of the Ganges. After heavy rains this channel is almost filled, but does not overflow, and has a rapidity that scarcely admits of navigating against the current; but during the rainy season, boats of 500 or 600 maunds pass the whole extent, above two districts, and small craft of twenty maunds can pass the whole year. Near its origin this river is said to be designated the Sonabudda, to distinguish it from the Nerbudda, by which, conjointly with the Ganges, the triangular portion of Hindostan is insulated. —(*F. Buchanan, Capt. Blunt, &c.*)

Sonekutch.—A town in the province of Malwa, nineteen miles east of Dewass, situated on the east side of the Cali Sinde river; lat. 23° 1′ N., lon. 76° 23′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sonepoor.—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated on the west side of the Mahanuddy river, but a great proportion of the lands attached to it lie to the east of that river, in the province of Orissa; lat. 20° 22′ N., lon. 83° 42′ E.; fifty-four miles south of Sumbhulpoor. In 1818 Sonepoor was assessed in money to the amount of 20,000 Sumbhulpoor rupees. At this place the Gond and Ooria languages are intermingled.—(*Roughsedge, Stirling, &c.*)

Soneput (*Sonapati*).—A town in the province of Delhi, which with the lands attached form part of the territory the revenue of which is assigned by the British government for the support of the emperor and royal family of Delhi. To the north of this city is a mausoleum erected by Khizzer Khan, a Patan nobleman, descended from the family of Shere Shah.

Songola.—A village in Siam, situated on the eastern bank of a river of the same name, which flows into the Meklong river, which joins the Menam near to Bankok, the capital of Siam. This village is only two hours and half marching distance from Praw Thoungy or the three pagodas, which mark the limits of the British and Siamese territories.

Songora.—A seaport belonging to the Siamese, situated on the east coast of the Malay peninsula, and west side of the gulf of Siam; lat. 7° 40′ N., lon. 101° 10′ E.

Sonye.—A town belonging to Sindia, in the province of Aurungabad, district of Ahmednuggur, twenty-five miles travelling distance N.N.E. from the city of Ahmednuggur. This place consists of two divisions, each of them completely walled, and separated by a rivulet. The eastern division is the most considerable, and seems to have been built on a regular plan.

Soobramani.—A mountain peak among the Western Ghauts, in the province of Canara, which towers above the rest, having an elevation of 5,611 feet above the level of the sea. —(*Col. Lamton, &c.*)

Sookait.—A large village in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harrowtee, which in 1820 contained about 2,000 inhabitants; lat. 24° 36′ N., lon. 76° 7′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sookertal.—A fortified town in the province of Delhi, thirty-five miles S. by W. from Hurdwar; lat. 29° 28′ N., lon. 78° E. West of it are entrenchments formerly excavated by Zabeta Khan.

Sookhlana.—A small town in the province of Malwa, situated on the east bank of the Chamlee river, in the pergunnah of Nolye.

Sooksagor.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Nuddea, about thirty-one miles N. from Calcutta.

Sookulteerut.—A town in the

province of Gujerat, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, eight miles from Broach; lat. 21° 48′ N., lon. 73° 12′ E. In 1820 it belonged to the Guicowar, and contained about 500 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sooloo Isles (*Sulok*).—A chain of islands in the Eastern seas, above sixty in number, extending from the north-eastern extremity of Borneo to the western extremity of Magindanao, and comprehended between the fourth and seventh degrees of north latitude. The island of Sooloo, from which the archipelago takes its name, is situated about lat. 6° N., lon. 121° E., and may be estimated at forty miles in length, by seven the average breadth. Viewed from the sea it presents a fine prospect, superior to the generality of Malay countries. The hills not being very high do not stop the clouds; it has not therefore any regular wet season like the large islands, but most rain falls during the south-west monsoon. Much rain also falls at the changes of the monsoons, especially the autumnal; but no storms accompany these changes, and indeed seldom occur at any time. There are several good harbours among these islands, particularly at Bewabewa, Tavetane, Tapool, Seeasse, between Boobooan and Tapeeantana, south of Baseelan.

The island of Sooloo being small and populous, considerable attention is paid to agriculture. Rice is planted, but the crop is precarious on account of rain, for which reason they also cultivate many roots, such as the Spanish and sweet potatoe, and the St. Helena and China yams; the rice consumed being mostly imported from Magindanao. There are a great variety of excellent tropical fruits, such as oranges, jacks, dorians, custard-amples, mangoes, mangosteens, and rambosteens. The Sooloos have much intercourse with China, and many Chinese having settled among them, they have learned the arts of engrafting and improving their fruits.

The breed of horses is tolerably good; and Captain Forrest asserts that wild elephants are found in the central parts, which appears improbable, considering that the island is both small and populous. Spotted deer, goats, and black cattle are plenty, but the natives seldom take milk from the cows, or use it in any shape as an article of diet. They possess few sheep, and what they have are imported, but wild hogs abound and do infinite mischief. Owing to its geographical position, beyond the violence of the monsoons, Sooloo enjoys a perpetual summer, so that ships may anchor in the open roadstead within half gunshot of the town, there being no surf or dangerous banks. The fort, as it is called, scarcely deserves such a name, as in 1821 it was partly composed of large timbers, with an earthen embankment not above ten feet high. The naval and land forces of Sooloo consist of the same individuals afloat or on shore; their fleets, fishing, and trading prows.

In remote times, on account of its position between Magindanao and Borneo, Sooloo was the grand mart of all the Mahomedan states in this quarter of the Eastern sea. The Portuguese do not appear to have ever colonized or conquered these islands but they visited them frequently. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, while the trade of Japan continued open, two or three ships came from thence annually, bringing silver, amber, chests, cabinets, and other curiosities made of fragrant and beautiful woods, besides great quantities of silks and porcelain from China. Sooloo was also then visited by vessels from Java, Sumatra, Ceylon, and the coast of Coromandel, the whole Eastern archipelago having then attained a height of prosperity and civilization, from which it has ever since been degenerating.

At present two rich junks, of about 800 tons, arrive annually from Amoy loaded with brass salvers, iron in small pieces, sugar-candy, raw silk, black

nankin, white strong linen, kangans, iron pans, china-ware, flowered silks, tea, cutlery, hard-ware, brass wire, gongs, beads, and fireworks. As a return cargo they export, principally to China, biche-de-mar, both black and white, wax, pearl oyster-shells, birds'-nests, and tortoise-shell. Besides these they take a sea-weed nanagal agal, used as a gum or glue, carooang oil, clove bark, black wood, rattans, sago, various barks for dyeing, cassia, pepper, native camphor, sandal-wood, spices, pearls, and curious shells for grotto-work.

Pearls, as an article of trade, are only procurable among dangerous shoals, so numerous in the narrow channels and passages of the Sooloo Islands, and they are known throughout the whole archipelago by the Sanscrit name of Mutya, pronounced Mootee. About the value of 25,000 dollars' worth of pearls and 70,000 dollars' of mother-of-pearl shell are annually carried from hence to China; and but for the turbulent and piratical habits of the Sooloos, much more might be exported. The same seas are the only parts of the archipelago where cowries are found, and exported by the Buggesses to the western marts, as also the shells of the gigantic cockle.

The Sooloos get most of their sago, and many other articles that they sell to the Chinese, such as biche-de-mar, cowries, tortoise-shell, &c., from the Tedong or Tiroon people, on the north-eastern coast of Borneo; and in order to monopolize the trade, they endeavour to prevent all intercourse between them and foreign nations. With Magindanao a considerable commerce is also carried on, the Sooloos receiving from thence rice, clean and in the husk, for which they usually pay in China goods. Among these islands many Biajoos, or wandering sea-gypsies, are seen, whose language differs essentially from that of the Sooloos. The Buggesses trade largely with Sooloo, bringing chiefly cotton cloth from Celebes, their native country. The sultan of Sooloo, like other Malay chieftains, is the principal merchant within his own dominions.

The sovereignty of Sooloo is hereditary, and the constitution a sort of feudal aristocracy, the direct power of the sultan being much controlled and frequently counterpoised by that of the dattoos, or nobles, who tyrannize over the people. The chief functionaries are also hereditary. The raja laut, or lord of the sea, is high admiral. There are many towns on the sea-coast, inland chiefly straggling huts and hamlets; but there are no horaforas, or savage aboriginals. There is a law both here and at Magindanao, that no Chinese can be made a slave; but slaves of all other classes are numerous. The Sooloos seldom go to foreign parts in their own vessels, except on predatory excursions to make slaves among the Philippines. They are little accustomed to the use of fire-arms, depending mostly on the lance, sword, and creese, at the use of which all ranks are dexterous; and being naturally of a martial turn, they had subdued, at an early period, not only all the adjacent small isles, but a great part of the north-east coast of Borneo. They appear to be innately sanguinary and treacherous, on which account their alliance often proves much more dangerous than their open hostility.

The Sooloo islanders have reached a more advanced stage of civilization than the Magindanese have yet attained. They are fond of music, and have Philippine slaves who play to them on the violin. In 1773 Capt. Forrest saw the sultan dance a minuet with his niece, and the dattoos, or nobles, go down a country dance, accomplishments acquired from the Spaniards. Indeed, the British seem to be the only nation that makes no impression or alteration on the natives with whom they associate. In all the Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch colonies, some approximation of manners and customs has taken place; go a mile from Madras or Calcutta, and the native manners are as pure as in the centre of Hindostan. The men generally go dressed in white waistcoats, but-

toned down to the middle, and white breeches; the ladies wear a fine white waistcoat, fitted close, with a petticoat over drawers which reach to the knee. They are not, as in most Mahomedan countries, kept strictly confined, but allowed to go abroad, as in Europe. In their families are many Philippine and some Spanish slaves, usually purchased from the Illanon and Magindanese cruizers, over whom they possess unlimited power of life, death, and torture. Assassination among the Sooloos is scarcely reckoned a crime, in that the only virtue they claim is courage, always mixed with treachery; honesty, industry, or hospitality, are qualities entirely foreign to their natures.

The Sooloo dialect is a very mixed one, derived mostly from the Malay, Javanese, and Tagala. They have adopted the Malay character, and have a few books in that tongue, with which they are chiefly supplied by the trading Buggesses. There are some who have a smattering of Arabic; but a large proportion, even of the nobles, cannot read or write. They pretend to have records relating to the discovery of the magnet, and the art of manufacturing gunpowder, but they are probably indebted for both to the Chinese; they are, however, good practical navigators. The Sooloos are of the Soonee Mahomedan sect; but their zeal for that faith or attention to its ordinances are feeble and capricious. Their mosques are mean, and destitute of all decoration, internal or external, and they rarely perform the pilgrimage to Mecca. One inveterate quality, however, of the true Mussulman they possess in perfection, which is hatred to the Spaniards and their religion. Although the Mahomedan persuasion be that of the government, a large proportion of its subjects are ignorant of its precepts, and still follow their own more barbarous superstitions. In A.D. 1773 the calipha, or high-priest of Sooloo, was a Turk, who had travelled much in Europe.

The Sooloos have a tradition that their island once formed part of an ancient Bornean empire founded by the Chinese; but the Magindanese assert, without however producing any proof, that the Sooloos were formerly subject to them. From the day the Spanish colonies were first planted in the Philippines to the most recent period, an unceasing warfare has subsisted between them and the Sooloos, in which the latter have generally had the advantage, although they occasionally experienced great reverses. In A.D. 1637 Don Sebastian Hurtado, then governor of the Philippines, conquered Sooloo and Magindanao, after an obstinate struggle, but was subsequently obliged to abandon them and withdraw the garrisons. Remains of Spanish buildings are still to be seen in the Sooloo capital. In 1775 the Sooloos attacked a settlement formed by the British East-India Company at a great expense, on the small island of Balambangan, off the north-west coast of Borneo, and drove the settlers on board their ships. In that year the reigning sultan was Israel, the son of Sultan Ameer ul Momenеen. This monarch had received his education at Manila, where he and his father were long held in captivity, until released on the capture of that city by the British, in 1762. The sultans of Sooloo have more than once sent envoys to Pekin.

The Sooloo islanders still retain their piratical and treacherous habits completely unchanged, and apparently unchangeable. In A.D. 1821 a most perfidious and premeditated attack was suddenly made at Tawee Tawee, by Dattoo Moolook, one of the Sooloo nobles (who with his adherents pretended to embark as a passenger), on the Sea Flower, a British country trader, commanded by Lieut. Spiers; but after a short and most slaughterous conflict, such of the assailants as survived were compelled to jump overboard; among the slain stretched on the deck was the traitor himself. Fortunately the Sea Flower, among her crew, had more than the usual proportion of Europeans; yet

she lost four killed, and ten wounded. British and foreign vessels continued, notwithstanding, to trade as usual, such accidents among Malay states not being considered as in the slightest degree disturbing the harmony of commercial relations.

In A.D. 1812 Mr. Hunt was deputed by Sir Thomas Raffles from Java to Sooloo, where he resided almost two years, and on his return delivered in a report on this Algiers of the East to the government of Prince of Wales' Island. In 1821 Lieut. Spiers reported that it was difficult to say whether the Sooloos were at peace or war with the Spaniards; for while vessels from Manilla were trading amicably in the harbour of Sooloo, they could see fleets of prows sailing off to plunder their own dominions in the Philippines. In 1824 an expedition from Manilla, with a considerable land force on board, scoured and laid waste the coasts of Sooloo, Basseelan, and Magindanao, in revenge for piracies committed by the Malay tribes on their own possessions.—(*Forrest, Dalrymple, Leyden, Crawfurd, Hunt, Lieut. Spiers, Gov. Phillips, &c.*)

SOOLTANPOOR.—A town in the province of Lahore, forty-six miles N.E. from Belaspoor; lat. 31° 59′ N., lon. 77° 8′ E.

SOOMNA.—A village and mud fort, the residence of a zemindar, in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, fourteen miles N. by E. from the fort of Alighur. A spacious gunge and serai have been erected by the zemindar without the walls, at a short distance from the village. This place in 1820 was erroneously laid down and misnamed in the best maps.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SOONAM.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty-six miles S.W. from Pattiallah; lat. 30° 7′ N., lon. 75° 57′ E.

SOONDA *(or Sudha)*.—A small territorial division situated above the ghauts, but comprehended in the British province and district of Canara. The town of Soonda, or rather its ruins, are in lat. 14° 43′ N., lon. 74° 58′ E., forty-four miles N.E. from Onore.

During the sway of its native rajas this country is said to have been cultivated, and the town of Soonda large and populous, comprehending, according to native authorities, three miles each way within the walls, and fully occupied with houses; but the district having been repeatedly the seat of war between Hyder and the Maharattas, has been greatly devastated, and the houses in the town reduced to less than one hundred. When Hyder first obtained possession, it was said to contain 10,000. The outermost wall of Soonda was estimated by the natives to have been forty-eight miles in circumference, and there were formerly three lines of fortifications around the city. Within the two spaces surrounded by the outer lines, the houses were scattered in small clumps, with gardens between them; but the whole country is now very thinly inhabited. All the arable land in Soonda is considered the property of the sovereign; but the value of an estate is fixed, and so long as the tenant pays his rent, it is not customary to turn him or his heirs out of possession. All the villages extending along the old Maharatta frontier belong to government, but they are in a very desolate condition.

Imody Sedasiva, the last independent raja or prince of Soonda, was expelled by Hyder in 1763, when he sought refuge at Goa, and surrendered to the Portuguese the whole of his territory below the ghauts for a stipulated pension. In A.D. 1799 this territory was transferred to the British government, and annexed to the jurisdiction of Canara. In 1814 the deposed raja of Soonda requested permission to visit Madras, for the ostensible purpose of obtaining medical advice, but in reality to lay his distressed condition before the members of that presidency. He was, however, refused permission, and recommended to state his grievances in writing, and rely with confidence on

the justice of the British government. He was also warned not to place the slightest reliance on the deceitful and interested agency of the hordes of private intriguers at Madras. It subsequently appeared that he had had the folly to apply for the intercession of the Prince Regent of Portugal, to obtain the restoration of the country of Soonda; and although petitioning the British government as a pauper, had accompanied his letters with some valuable presents to the Portuguese potentate and to his minister of colonies.—(*F. Buchanan, Wilkes, Fifth Report, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Soondersee.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the east side of the Cali Sinde river, twenty-one miles S.W. from Shujawulpoor; lat. 23° 17′ N., lon. 76° 35′ E. It suffered greatly from the Pindaries, but in 1820 still contained 512 houses. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Soondoor.—A town, temple, and valley in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, which in 1814, although surrounded by the British dominions, was in direct subjection to the Peshwa. The fortress is strong and insulated by a chain of hills; through which there is a pathway leading from the British territories to the pagoda, which stands on the top of the southern extremity of the Soondoor hills. It belongs to the family of Jeswunt Row Gorepara, who was formerly ambassador from Sindia, and now receives a pension from the British government; but his claims being disputed by the Peshwa, it required the interference of the British government to terminate their disputes.

Soondoor was always held in high estimation by the ex-Peshwa Bajerow as a place of religious pilgrimage. In 1807, and again in 1815, he paid a visit to the temple of Cartic Swamy (the Hindoo Mars), accompanied by an enormous crowd of followers, who devastated the country, and destroyed the crops. At the date last mentioned Soondoor was possessed by Sewa Row, the son of Cundee Row Gorepara, who was then imprisoned at Poona, and it was subsequently discovered that the whole pilgrimage was merely a cloak to conceal the Peshwa's intention to obtain possession of the place by fraud or force.—(*Chaplin, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Soonee.—A village in Berar, twelve miles N. from Pundercourah, where, in 1818, the army of the Peshwa Bajerow was met and defeated by Colonel Adams, who had only a single regiment of cavalry with him and some horse artillery. Five guns, the only remaining ones he had, three elephants and 200 camels were captured. The elephants were those that always preceded Bajerow's line of march, and on which his treasure was usually laden: but only 11,000 rupees were found on them, the rest having been made away with during the confusion. The Peshwa himself escaped by mounting a horse and galloping off as soon as the British troops appeared, but one of his palanquins, perforated by a round shot, was taken. The British loss was only two wounded, the enemy having never stood the charge; while by the effect of a hot pursuit, and more especially of the horse artillery, a great many of the Maharattas were left dead on the field.—(*Prinsep, &c.*)

Soonel.—A town in the province of Malwa, eighty miles N. from Oojein; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 75° 56′ E. This is a place of considerable extent, and of a square form, having two broad streets that cross each other at right angles in the middle of the town. The houses are two stories high, built with remarkable regularity, and, as well as the outer walls, composed partly of stone and partly of brick.—(*Hunter, Fullarton, &c.*)

Soonergong (*Suvarna grama, the golden village*).—This is reputed to have been once a large city, the provincial capital of the eastern division of Bengal, before Dacca was in existence, but is now dwindled down to a village, situated on one of the

branches of the Brahmaputra, about thirteen miles S.E. from Dacca; lat. 23° 39′ N., lon. 90° 43′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is celebrated for the manufacture of a beautiful cloth named cassas (cossaes), and the fabric it still produces justify to the present generation its ancient renown.

Soonghur.—A town in the province of Gujerat, thirty miles east from Surat; lat. 21° 10′ N., lon. 73° 37′ E.

Soongnum.—A substantial village in Northern Hindostan, on the Rushkolang river, a tributary to the Sutuleje, 9,350 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 45′ N., lon. 78° 31′ E. This place stands in the valley of Darbung, on the right side of the Sutuleje, where the mountains rise to a tremendous height, and separate it from the Spiti district belonging to Lahdack. In 1821 this village contained seventy families, mostly traders to Lahdack, Garoo, and Rodauk. The climate here permits two annual crops of barley, ogul, and phaphur.—(*Public Journals, Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Soongroor.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty miles west of Pattiallah; lat. 30° 17′ N., lon. 75° 54′ E.

Soonkaur (*Suncara*).—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty-seven miles south from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 31′ N., lon. 75° 36′ E.

Soonth.—A small principality in the province of Gujerat, eighty miles E. by N. from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 13′ N., lon. 73° 55′ E. It is contiguous to the Lunawara subdivision, and on the east extends into the open country nearly as far as the Calibere tank, in the vicinity of the Gudara district. It is sometimes called South Rampoor, from a village of the latter name adjoining.

The fort and town of Soonth (which were unknown to Europeans until 1803) stand four miles from the open country to the westward, from which it is separated by a continuance of jungly hills of a moderate elevation. The fort is built on the western face of a high rocky hill, and contains a curiously constructed palace. It is only, however, of consequence as commanding an important pass, for it is otherwise a poor and miserable place, although considered by the raja impregnable, and viewed by him with much satisfaction. Like other Rajpoot leaders, the reigning chief in 1806 was greatly addicted to opium, and although only twenty-eight years of age, exemplified the baneful effects of that drug in a premature decay of body and mind. He objected, however, most strenuously to Soonth's becoming a thoroughfare either for commerce or armies, foreseeing the speedy dissolution of his sway as a consequence, and preferring ignorance, opium, and independence, to the very doubtful advantages of a civilized state.

The low lands of Soonth yield rice, but scarcely any other grain; the hilly parts afford pasture to the rice carriers; but during the hot season are so parched and burned up, that they are deserted even by the savage and untractable Bheels, who are the temporary occupiers of these dreary wastes. Doubts having arisen in 1803 whether Soonth was within the limits of Gujerat, the point was decided in the affirmative by Colonel Walker, after reference to certain documents compiled from the records at Ahmedabad by an ancient dewan of the province. In 1819 the gross revenues of Soonth amounted to about 45,000 rupees.—(*Burr, Malcolm, &c.*)

Soopoor.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Goruckpoor, sixty-two miles N.N.E. from the town of Goruckpoor; lat. 27° 20′ N., lon. 84° 3′ E.

Soorapoor (*Suryapuru*). — A town in the province of Bejapoor, sixty-five miles S.E. from the city of that name; lat. 13° 36′ N., lon. 76° 47′ E.

Soorootoo Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about fifteen miles in circumference, situated off the west coast of Borneo; lat. 1° 45′ N., lon. 108° 40′ E. This island lies W.S.W. from Cavimata, and between them there is a sufficient passage which a ship might run through if compelled by necessity. Wood and water are to be found on the west side of Soorootoo, and also plenty of stock, such as fowls and buffaloes. —(*Elmore, &c.*)

Soopah.—A town in the province of Allahabad, eleven miles N.E. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 19′ N., lon. 79° 45′ E.

Soorpal.—A Brahmin village, with a ghaut and temple, in the province of Bejapoor, situated on the left bank of the Krishna river, about thirty-eight miles travelling distance S.W. from that city. The Krishna here is about one-third of a mile in breadth, and is crossed in a basket boat covered with hides.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Soorujghur.—A town in Northern Hindostan, four miles S.S.E. from Malown; lat. 31° 10′ N., lon. 76° 50′ E.

Soorujpoor (*Serajpura*).—A walled village in the province of Delhi, district of Merut, eighteen miles S.E. from the city of Delhi.

Soory.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Birboom, of which it is the modern capital; lat. 23° 54′ N., lon. 87° 32′ E., fifty miles S.W. from Moorshedabad. The country about Soory is high, undulating, and open, with scarcely a tree to be seen, although the western jungle approaches within a few miles of the station. The soil is hard, and strongly impregnated with iron; and the roads in the neighbourhood, owing to the excellence of this material, the best probably in Bengal.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Soosauree.—A small town in the province of Malwa, two miles from Kooksee, which in 1820 was the residence of Tantia, but belonged to the raja of Dhar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Soosneer.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty-one miles travelling distance from Auggur; lat. 23° 59′ N., lon. 76° 8′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia, but was rented by Zalim Singh of Kotah. There is here a small stone fort, and the town is enclosed by a weak wall, without ditch or outwork. The red iron soil does not properly commence until Soosneer is passed about eight miles on the road to Auggur.—(*Fullarton, Malcolm, &c.*)

Soosoohoonan (*in Java*).—See Solo or Suryacarta.

Sootar.—A considerable village in the province of Bejapoor, populous and well-built, situated in the territories of the Satara raja, about seven miles N. by E. from the town of Satara.

Sooty.—A town in the province of Bengal, thirty miles N.N.W. from the city of Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 26′ N., lon. 88° 2′ E. In 1757, when Seraje ud Dowlah apprehended an attack from the English, believing that their ships of war could proceed up the eastern branch of the Ganges to the northern point of Cossimbazar island, and from thence down the Bhagirathi to Moorshedabad, he commanded immense piles to be driven into the river at Sooty, by which it has been rendered unnavigable for any construction of vessel larger than boats, and even for these during a part only of the year. In 1763 an action was fought here between the British troops and those of Meer Cossim, in which the latter were defeated.—(*Stewart, Said Gholaum Hossein, &c.*)

Soping (*Sofin*).—A principality in Celebes, anciently one of the most powerful on the island. It extends partly along the western shore of the bays of Boni and Tolo; to the north it is bounded by a great lake, and on the south it borders on Lamoeroe. Its chief production is rice, and, like

most of the states in Celebes, it appears to be as frequently subject to female as to male sovereigns, which is remarkable in a country professing to follow the Mahomedan faith. The natives of Soping are reckoned brave in war, and the policy pursued by the Dutch, of sowing dissensions among the petty states, has always given them a great deal of practice. In 1775 Soping is described as an independent state in alliance with the Dutch, but governed by its own king. —(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

Soreth.—A district in the Gujerat peninsula, encompassing the Junaghur mountains, and situated between the twenty-first and twenty-second degrees of north latitude. To the north and west it is bounded by Burudda and Hallaur, on the south by Babreeawar, and on the east by Cattywar. When Abul Fazel wrote it appears to have comprehended a large proportion of the Gujerat peninsula prior to the irruption of the Catties.

The country of Soreth, including Junaghur, its capital, was anciently governed by rajas of the Churassama tribe, during which dynasty it is described as enjoying a high degree of prosperity, while the neighbouring territories were harassed by contending Mahomedan chiefs. In process of time it also fell a prey to the followers of the Arabian prophet, who gradually reduced it to the state of barbarism and desolation which it now exhibits. The ancient residence of the Soreth rajas was at Runtella, but was afterwards transferred to Junaghur, which in A.D. 1472 surrendered to Sultan Mahmood Begra, when Raja Row Mundybak was ordered to repeat the Mahomedan creed. During the siege few guns were used on either side, the garrison principally defending themselves with bows and arrows. From this era Soreth remained subject to Mahomedan princes, and when Gujerat was conquered by Acber became a dependence of the great Delhi empire, under the immediate superintendence of the soubahdar of Ahmedabad.

About 1735, when the Mogul empire had fallen to pieces, it became again independent, having been seized on with Junaghur, the metropolis, by Shere Khan Babi, a soldier of fortune, whose descendant still fills the throne. But his, or any other authority, was very imperfectly established, every fortress, town, hill, or village, being occupied by petty chiefs and communities, hostile to each other, and to every species of regularity and subordination. Towards the conclusion of the eighteenth century many of these dens of thieves were reduced by the energy of Ambajee, dewan to the nabob of Junaghur, who was afterwards assassinated by his master Hamet Khan, the reigning nabob, in 1808. Indeed for the thirty years prior to 1810, this principality exhibited an unceasing scene of revolutions, intrigues, and assassinations, in perseverance and activity, incredible to a mere European politician.—(*Col. Walker, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Soriapett.—A town in the province of Hyderabad, sixty-five miles E. by S. from the capital; lat. 17° 10′ N., lon. 79° 35′ E.

Soroll.—A small town with two fine tanks, and the remains of a mud fort, situated in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, about twenty-three miles S.W. from Balasore.

Sourabhaya.—See Surabaya.

Souracarta *(or Suryacarta).*—See Solo in Java.

Sources of the Ganges.—In old maps this mountainous region is named Badrycazram (Vadarica Asrama), which signifies the bower of Vadarica trees; but until lately had never been explored except by some wandering Hindoo devotees, searching for the sources of their sacred river, here concealed from view by mounds of never-melting snow. The face of the country is composed of the third ridge of mountains from

the Gangetic plain, the fourth or highest range being that which separates Hindostan from Tibet, or southern Tartary. No variety of surface therefore can be expected, hill succeeding hill, and precipice precipice, with chasms filled with drifted snow, until at length the highest range is attained, the descent of which to the north is, comparatively with the other, so gentle, that it has always been described as table-land. Through these mountains there are various communications, by which salt is brought from Tibet; one lies a little way west of Gangoutri; two others lead from the vicinity of Bhadrinath. The passage by Niti is reckoned the best through the Himalaya in these western parts, and will probably ere long be so improved as to render this hitherto formidable pass of very easy access. Rock crystal is said to be found in the vicinity of the snow, where, although the cold is intense, many sheep are pastured.

Different portions of this country are designated by different names, but it is difficult to discriminate their limits. The frontier district of Tungsah is considered to belong to what is here called Bhote or Tibet, and their inhabitants pay their land tribute to a collector, who comes from Chaprung, a Chinese dependency. It also furnishes to the raja of Bussaher, every third year, a blanket per man, besides a small complimentary tribute of raisins to the Gurwal raja. The inhabitants of Tungsah are termed Dobashies, from their speaking the languages both of Gurwal and Tibet. Above Sukhi and Jhala the country is not inhabited, nor indeed is it habitable beyond these places.

By the hill natives and the low country Hindoos, the whole tract of country close to the highest ridge of Himalaya is termed Bhote, and the descriptions of the territory similarly situated, given under the articles Nepaul and Bhutant, strictly apply to this region also, both with respect to its physical appearance and to its productions, animal, vegetable, and mineral. Vyas, the great legislator of the Brahminical Hindoos, together with many thousand saints and sages of the early yugs or ages, are supposed by that people to be still alive in a large cavern, somewhere in this remote and sacred region, but the place of their domicile has never yet been discovered by their wandering votaries, who continue, notwithstanding, patiently to seek what they are doomed never to find.—(*F. Buchanan, Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

Sourrera.—A town in the Northern Circars, thirty-five miles west from the Chilka lake; lat. 19° 49′ N., lon. 84° 49′ E.

Sours.—See Orissa Province.

South-west Monsoon.—See India South of the Krishna River.

Sow *(or Sew)* River.—This river has its source in the secondary mountains that form the western boundary of the Malwa province, and flowing past the towns of Mundessor and Narghur, joins the Chumbul near the village of Ailwer, after a winding course of fifty miles.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sowleeghur.—A hill-fort in the province of Gundwana, sixteen miles south of Sookurtully; lat. 22° 6′ N., lon. 77° 29′ E.

Spiti.—A district in little Tibet, situated between Chinese Tartary, Lahdack, Cooloo, and Bussaher, and paying tribute to each. The inhabitants are all Tartars, and follow the Lama religion. The villages are from 12,000 to 12,500 feet above the level of the sea, and towards Lahdack the habitations must be still more elevated, the country more barren, and the climate more inhospitable.—(*Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

Spiti River *(or Li river)*.—A river of Tartary, the great western branch of the Sutuleje, which has its source south of Leh or Lahdack, from whence its course is southerly until it joins the Sutuleje, and loses its name in lat. 31° 48′ N., lon. 78° 38′ E. (near the village of Namjia, the last in Bussaher), where in appear-

ance it is very little inferior to the Sutuleje. At the confluence there is a fort named Danka. In the lower part of its course the Spiti waters the Tartar district of Hagarang, subject to Bussaher; in the upper part it passes through the Lahdack districts of Spiti and Spino in two branches.—(*Capt. Hodgson, Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

Spolonk.—A village in the island of Java, situated on the great southern ocean, 104 miles S. from Samarang; lat. 8° S., lon. 110° 20′ E. There are numerous sandhills in this vicinity, thrown up by the waves on the flat shore, while on most other parts of this extensive coast huge cliffs oppose the surf, and render the shore in many places inaccessible. Close to the beach are several bungalows, belonging to the sultan and his family, who occasionally resort hither for the benefit of sea bathing. Adjoining is a beautiful grotto, formed by the petrified trunks, roots, and lower branches of a small grove, through which runs a clear stream, possessing the petrifying quality. Near the spring is a small temple, and a few hundred yards west are hot mineral springs, close to the water's edge. These fountains have a strong sulphurous smell, and in one of them the thermometer ascended to 122° Fahrenheit.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

Sravana Belgula.—A village in the territories of the Mysore raja, thirty-three miles N. by W. from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 51′ N., lon. 76° 42′ E. This place is celebrated as being the principal seat of the Jain worship, once so prevalent over the south of India. Near to the village are two rocky hills, on one of which, named Indra Betta, is a temple of the kind named Busty, and a high place with a colossal statue of Gomuta Raya, within a stone enclosure at the summit. The height of the statue is seventy feet three inches, and the Duke of Wellington, after inspection, was of opinion that the rock had been cut down until nothing but the image remained. The head of the figure is tolerably well executed, but the sculpture of the limbs very defective. The village below, though not large, is, like most religious places, well built and comfortably peopled. It contains a considerable Jain temple, and on the opposite hill of Chandragiri there are no less than fifteen temples of the same sort.

The Jains constitute a sect of Hindoos differing in some important tenets from the Brahminical, but following in other respects similar practices. The essential character of Hindoo institutions is the distribution of the people into four great tribes. The Jainas admit the same division into four great tribes, Brahmins, Khetries, Vaisyas, and Sudras, and perform like ceremonies from the birth of a male to his marriage. They observe similar fasts, and practice still more strictly the received maxims of refraining from injury to any sentient being. They appear to recognize as subordinate deities, some, if not all the gods of the prevailing sects; but do not worship in particular the five principal gods of these sects, nor address prayers nor perform sacrifices to the sun or fire. They differ also from the Brahminical Hindoos in assigning the highest place to certain deified saints, who, according to their creed, have successively become superior gods. Another doctrine in which they materially disagree with the orthodox Hindoos, is the rejection of the Vedas, the divine authority of which they deny.

In this last particular the Jains agree with the Buddhists, or Sangatas, who equally deny the divine authority of the Vedas, and who in a similar manner worship certain eminent saints, admitting likewise as subordinate deities the whole pantheon of the orthodox Hindoos. These two sects (the Jains and Buddhists) differ in regard to the history of the personages whom they have deified, and it may hence be concluded that they had distinct founders, but the original notion seems to have been the same. All agree in the belief of transmigration. Jaina priests

usually wear a broom adapted to sweep insects out of the way, lest they should tread on the minutest being. In Hindostan the Jains are usually called Syauras, but distinguish themselves into Sravacas (Shrawuks) and Yaitis, or laity and clergy.

Parswa or Parswanath, the twenty-third deified saint of the Jains, and who perhaps was the founder of the sect, was born in the suburbs of Benares, and died at the age of 100 years, on mount Samet at Parsonauth, among the hills bordering Bengal and Bahar. Some of the other sanctified places of the Jains are Papapuri near Rajagriha in Bahar; Champapuri near Boglipoor; Chandravati, distant ten miles from Benares; and the ancient city of Hastinapoor in the Delhi province; also Satrunjaya, said to be situated in the west of India. The mythology of the orthodox or Brahminical Hindoos, their present chronology adapted to astronomical periods, their legendary tales, and their mystical allegories are abundantly absurd; but the Jains and Buddhists greatly surpass them in monstrous exaggerations of the same kind.

This village (Sravana Belgula) is wholly inhabited by Jainas, who differ considerably from those of Tulava (Canara). They assert that the Bunts of Tulava are Vaisyas, and will not acknowledge that any Sudras belong to their sect. In Hindostan proper, if not likewise in the Deccan and south of India, the Jainas are all of one caste, the Vaisya; but the Brahmins consider them to be misguided Khetries; they call themselves Vaisyas. On renouncing the heresies of the Jaina sect, they take their place among the orthodox Hindoos as belonging to a particular caste (Khetri or Vaisya). The representative of the family of Juggeth Set'h, the great bankers, who with many of his kindred was converted, many years ago, from the Jaina to the orthodox faith, is a conspicuous instance. Such admission would not have been granted to a convert who had not already caste as a Hindoo. —(*Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, Fullarton, Col. Mackenzie, &c.*)

Srighur.—A fort or peak in the province of Lahore, chiefship of Cooloo, situated on the right bank of the Sutuleje; lat. 31° 24′ N., lon. 78° 25′ E.; elevation above the sea 8,424 feet.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Sri Kanta.—A peak in Northern Hindostan, district of Gurwal, round which the Ganges winds, where it penetrates through the base of the south-west Himalaya range; lat. 30° 57′ N., lon. 78° 47′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea 20,296 feet.

Srimuttra (*Sri Mathura*).—A town of considerable size in the province of Agra, situated on a naked rock of red-stone; lat. 26°41′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E. Working the red-stone into slabs furnishes employment for the greater part of the inhabitants.—(*Broughton, &c.*)

Sri Narrain (*Sri Narayana*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, to which there is convenient water carriage from Cuttack; it would consequently be a great improvement if an artillery road were made between this place and Mundela, from whence (if the Nerbudda be navigable) heavy goods and stores might be conveyed to central Hindostan, and to all the British stations in the vicinity of that river. In the favourable monsoon the voyage from Cuttack to Sri Narrain, where there is an extensive ghaut of masonry, occupies only thirty-five days: here the goods might be warehoused until the dry season, and then transported by land through Ruttunpoor and Pindea Nowaghur to Mundela, where they would arrive about the end of November; from Mundela they might be floated down the Nerbudda. From Sri Narrain to Mundela the distance in a strait line, according to the maps, does not exceed 150 miles.—(*Major Roughsedge, &c.*)

Sri Permaturu.—A small town

in the Carnatic province, twenty-four miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 57′ N., lon. 80° 2′ E. This town is celebrated as the birth-place of Rama Anuja Acharya, the great Brahmin saint and reformer, and the founder of a sect. His birth is supposed to have happened in A.D. 1016. Before the appearance of Rama Anuja the most prevalent sects in the neighbourhood were the followers of Buddha and the Charvaca (Shrawuks) or Jains, both of which have been long extinct in this section of Hindostan.

STATES ADJACENT TO ASSAM.—See ASSAM.

SUBBULGHUR.—A town in the province of Agra, sixty-five miles S.W. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E.

SUBBULGHUR.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Moradabad, about eighteen miles south from Hurdwar; lat. 29° 42′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E. This place stands in the midst of the vast jungle which here bounds the Ganges to the east, and extends north to the hills opposite to Hurdwar. Its site is said to be now an uninhabited wilderness.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SUBHATOO.—A small hill-fort or military post in Northern Hindostan, 4,205 feet above the level of the sea, and the head-quarters of a battalion; lat. 30° 58′ N., lon. 76° 59′ E. The surrounding tract has become populous and cultivated since the establishment of a British post here.

SUBROY (*Siva raya*).—A small town in the province of Cutch, situated on the road from Luckput Bunder to Mandavie, from which it is distant twenty-three miles to the north-west. It stands on a rising ground, and is defended by a small castle.

SUBUNREEKA RIVER (*suwarna reka, with golden sands*).—This river has its source in the province of Bahar, division of Chuta Nagpoor, whence it flows in a south-easterly direction, until after a winding course of about 250 miles, it falls into the bay of Bengal. For many years prior to the conquest of Bengal by the British this river had formed the southern boundary of that soubah, under the different native governments, and continued subsequently to mark the boundary until 1803, when the acquisition of Cuttack brought the Bengal and Madras presidencies for the first time into contact.

SUCCADANA.—A town on the west coast of the island of Borneo, and a considerable mart for the sale of opium. It is a custom here, as at all the Eastern ports, to give a present at the first audience, in proportion to the rank of the person visited. The king's present here is about fifty dollars, the raja's thirty; the shahbunder and agent twenty each. The raja and his family commonly monopolize the sale of opium.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

SUFFEEDUN.—A town in the province of Delhi, eighteen miles west of Paniput; lat. 29° 24′ N., lon. 76° 39′ E.

SUGOULY.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, situated on the south side of the Boori (old) Gunduck river, which has its source in the neighbourhood of Somaisir. It is navigable in boats during the greater part of the year as high up as Sugouly.

SUGRIVA PERWUTTUM.—The name of a peak of very difficult access in the province of Gundwana, not far from Badrachellum, where Hoonimaun is said to have sat while he recruited his army of monkeys preparatory to the invasion of Ceylon under the great Rama.—(*Voysey, &c.*)

SUGUD BOYAN BAY.—A bay in the island of Magindanao, where there is a good harbour, near to which the indigo plant grows spontaneously, and in the vicinity are wild horses, cattle, and deer. The entrance into this bay is only five miles wide.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

SUJANPOOR.—A considerable town in the province of Lahore, containing

about 2,000 houses, situated on the east bank of the Beyah river, thirty miles east from Kangra. According to native authority it is surrounded by lines twelve coss in circumference. —(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

SUKAID (*Sukheta*). — A narrow tract of country in the province of Lahore, extending along the north bank of the Sutuleje river, which here by a great circumflexion flows from the south-east to the north-west. In 1810 this territory was said to yield to its chief (Perkhaush Sen) a lack of rupees per annum. Sukaid the capital contains about 500 houses; lat. 31° 27′ N., lon. 76° 58′ E., fifteen miles N.E. from Belaspoor.—(*F. Buchanan, Lieut. Ross, &c.*)

SULKEA.—A populous town in the province of Bengal, situated on the west bank of the river Hooghly, immediately opposite to the city of Calcutta. The government have here extensive warehouses for the reception of salt, imported under their license from the Northern circars and other provinces of India.

SULOOMBER.—A town in the province of Malwa, forty-three miles S.S.E. from Odeypoor; lat. 24°18′ N., lon. 74° 20′ E.

SULTANGUNGE. — A town in the province of Oude, forty-five miles W.N.W. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 59′ N., lon. 80° 7′ E.

SULTANGUNGE.—A small town in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, situated on the right bank of the Ganges, between Boglipoor and Monghir. There is a small mosque here on the summit of a projecting cliff; and at about a furlong's distance to the westward, in the midst of the river, is the picturesque rock of Janguira, with its rude sculptures and fantastic Hindoo buildings, the residence of an old fakeer, who (1820) has inhabited its apex for the last half century.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SULTANPET.—A village among the Western Ghauts in the province of Canara, forty-four miles E.N.E. from Mangalore; lat. 13° 10′ N., lon. 75° 34′ E. In the neighbourhood of this place there is a stupendous fortified mountain, 5,000 feet in perpendicular height above the level of the sea. Although long, the road to the top of it is of easy ascent. The fortifications were erected during an early period of the Bednore government; and when Hyder took that city the ranny attempted to make her escape to this droog, but was pursued and captured.—(*Col. Lambton, &c.*)

SULTANPOOR.—A town in the Lahore province, twenty-seven miles south from Amritsir; lat. 31° 13′ N., lon. 74° 56′ E.

SULTANPOOR.—A town in the province of Candeish, ninety-seven miles E.N.E. from Surat; lat. 21° 38′ N., lon. 74° 34′ E. So late as 1804 this was a large and flourishing place, the head of a district yielding a revenue of eight lacks, but so severely did it suffer by the oppressive measures of Holcar's government, that in 1816 it was little better than a mass of ruins, and the territory from hence to Boorhanpoor a scene of desolation.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

SUMAUN.—A town in the province of Agra, twenty-four miles north from Etaweh; lat. 27° 7′ N., lon. 78° 59′ E.

SUMATRA.

A large island in the Eastern seas, divided obliquely by the equator into almost equal parts, and extending further west than any of the Sunda chain. Its northern point stretches into the bay of Bengal; its south-west coast is exposed to the great Indian ocean; towards the south-east it is separated by the straits of Sunda from the island of Java; on the east by the China and Eastern seas from Borneo and other islands, and on the north-east by the straits of Malacca from the Malay peninsula. In length it may be estimated at 1,050 miles, by 165 miles the average breadth. Among the Eastern people

generally, and the better-informed part of the natives, this island is known by the name of Pulo Purichu and Indalas; the origin of the term Sumatra being quite uncertain. By Marco Polo it is called Java Minor, and by the Javanese the Land of Palembang.

Reckoning from Acheen head to the entrance of the straits of Banca, the north-eastern coast of Sumatra extends in length at least nine hundred miles, naturally divided into three portions; the first, extending from the straits of Banca to the river Reccan, a distance of about 500 miles, is low and flat, without a mountain in view, and abounds in large rivers, while its coast is covered with considerable alluvial islands and sand-banks. This is the country of sago, of the rattan, dragon's-blood, and benzoin. The second division, stretching from the river Reccan to Diamond point, occupies a space of about 240 miles, with a low coast, but less swampy than the preceding division, and without large rivers or considerable islands. This is the country of black pepper. The third division extends from Diamond point to Acheen head, a distance of about 150 miles, with a coast comparatively bold and mountainous. This is probably the most abundant country in the world for the areca-nut, and from hence immense quantities are exported to Penang and Singapoor. The whole coast of Sumatra along the straits of Banca presents nothing to the eye but a low flat of interminable swamps and jungles. At Langkat, Delli, Batubara, and Assahan, on the north coast, the rise of tide is from eight to ten feet, at Siak twelve feet, and the same in the Reccan river.

A chain of mountains runs through the whole extent of Sumatra, the ranges being in many parts double and treble, but in general situated much nearer to the western than the opposite coast. The height of these mountains, although very great, is not sufficient to occasion their being covered with snow at any season of the year. Mount Ophir, situated immediately under the equinoctial line, is supposed to be the highest visible from the sea, above which level its summit is elevated 13,842 feet. The name was applied to the mountain by European navigators, and is wholly unknown to the natives. In 1817 a journey was performed from Manna to Passumah Lebar, and to the great mountain Gunong Dempo, which was ascended. It is visible from Bencoolen, bearing from Manna N.N.E., and from Padang Guchei north, and was roughly estimated by Mr. Presgrave and the other travellers at 12,000 feet above the level of the sea. Between the above-mentioned ridges of mountains are extensive plains, considerably elevated above the surface of the maritime lands, where the air is cool, and the country well cleared and inhabited. In the intermediate spaces between the ranges of hills are also many large and beautiful lakes that extend at intervals through the heart of the country, and facilitate the communication; but as yet their situation, direction, and dimensions, are but very imperfectly known.

The western coast of Sumatra is extremely well supplied with water; springs are found every where, and rivers are numerous; but they are in general too shallow and rapid for the purposes of navigation. On the north-eastern coast, the mountains being at a greater distance from the sea, the rivers attain a greater magnitude of volume. The largest on the western coast are the Kataun, the Indrapura, the Tabayong, and Sinkel, which are inferior to the Palembang, the Jambee, the Indragiri, and the Siak of the eastern coast, which have as yet been but partially explored. These last are said by the natives to communicate in the centre of the island, a fact which it is extremely desirable to ascertain, as well as the condition of the countries through which they flow, more especially of Menancabow, the reputed metropolis of Sumatra, respecting which scarcely any thing has been learned since the time

of Mr. Marsden. In 1820 a mission under Mr. Ibbetson was despatched from Penang for this purpose, but, owing to his severe indisposition, and subsequent death, no progress was made.

The chain of islands lying parallel to the west coast of Sumatra probably at some remote period formed a part of the main, as the whole coast exhibit marks of the progress of insulation. This probability is corroborated by the direction of the islands, the similarity of rock, soil, and vegetable productions, and the regularity of soundings between them and the main, while beyond them depth is unfathomable. The sea appears to encroach on the northern coast, while it restores land on the southern. The production of islands on this coast, by the rapid increase of coral, is a remarkable operation of nature, experience having ascertained the formation of islands from this cause. Numerous clusters of islands in the Eastern seas are supported by bases of coral, and surrounded by shoals emerging from the surface. On the west coast of Sumatra the tides are estimated to rise only four feet, owing to its open, unconfined situation, which prevents an accumulation of water, as happens in narrow seas.

The whole south-eastern extremity of the island is little better than a forest of mangroves growing out of a morass. This tree extends its roots in a curved direction into the water from different parts of the trunk, forming arches to some distance until they reach the bottom covered by the sea. To these roots or inverted branches oysters and other small shell-fish adhere, and this circumstance has given rise to the assertion sometimes hazarded of oysters growing on trees. On this coast pieces of land, torn from the shore by the violence of river floods, with their shrubs and plants growing on them, are seen driving about with the wind and current, the roots being so closely matted and interwoven together as to retain a quantity of earth.

On the west coast of Sumatra, south of the equinoctial, the south east monsoon or dry season begins about May, and slackens in September. The north-west monsoon begins about November, and the hard rains cease about March. The monsoons there for the most part commence and leave off gradually; the months of April and May, October and November, generally affording variable weather and winds. On this island, as well as other tropical countries of considerable extent, the wind blows uniformly from the sea to the land for a certain number of hours in the twenty-four, and then veers round, and blows for about as many from the land to the sea. The air of Sumatra is in general more temperate than in many regions beyond the tropics. The thermometer is seldom known to rise higher in the shade than eighty-five degrees, and at sun-rise is usually so low as seventy degrees Fahrenheit. Inland among the hills the thermometer has been known so low as forty degrees, the cold felt being also much greater than that number of degrees usually indicates. Frost and snow are unknown to the inhabitants, but fogs are very prevalent and surprisingly dense.

In Sumatra there are a number of volcanic mountains, named in the Malay language Goonong api. Lava has been seen to flow from a considerable one near Priaman, but without causing any other damage than burning the woods. Earthquakes are frequent, but in general very slight. No direct connection between them and the volcanoes have ever been discovered. The water-spout often occurs along the coast, and frequently brings its wheeling inundations on the land. Thunder and lightning are so frequent as scarcely to attract attention; but few instances of damage or loss of lives are ever experienced.

The soil on the western coast of Sumatra is generally a stiff reddish clay, covered with a layer of black mould, of no considerable depth.

From this springs a strong and perpetual verdure of rank grass, brushwood, and other timber trees, so that a great proportion of the island, especially to the southward, is an impervious forest.

The earth in Sumatra is rich in minerals and other fossil productions, and the island has in all ages been famous for gold, which still continues to be procured in considerable quantities, and might be greatly increased if the gatherers had a competent knowledge of mineralogy. There are also mines of copper, iron, and tin. Sulphur is collected in large quantities among the numerous volcanoes. The natives extract saltpetre from the impregnated earth, chiefly found in extensive caves that have been long frequented by birds and bats, from whose dung the soil is formed, and acquires its nitrous properties. Coal, mostly washed down by the floods, is procured in many parts, particularly at Kuttaun, Ayer, Rami, and Bencooolen; but it is light, and not considered of a good quality. Mineral and hot springs, in taste resembling those of Harrowgate, are found in various districts. Earth-oil, used chiefly as a preservative against the ravages of the white ant, is collected at Ipu and elsewhere. There is scarcely any species of hard rock to be met with in the low parts of the island near the sea-shore, in the cliffs along which various petrifactions and sea-shells are to be discovered.

Copper is found on the hills of Mucky, near the sea, between Analaboo and Soosoo, to the north of the formerly English settlement at Tapanooly. The space affording the ore is considerable, extending above a degree in length, and farther east inland than has yet been ascertained. A considerable quantity of rich copper ore is found on the surface of the hills, to which the natives as yet limit their researches. On analyzation it has been found to contain a considerable proportion of gold.

Rice is the most important article of cultivation in Sumatra. In the husk it is called paddy by the Malays, from whose language the words seems to have found its way to the maritime parts of Hindostan. The kinds of rice are very numerous, but may be divided into two comprehensive classes: the upland or dry rice, and the lowland or marshy rice. The natives generally prefer the small-grained rice when it is at the same time white, and in some degree transparent. In some parts of the island vegetation is so strong that spots which have been perfectly cleared for cultivation will, upon being neglected for a single season, afford shelter to the beasts of the forest. The nominal time allowed from the sowing to the reaping of the crop of the upland rice is five lunar months and ten days; but from this it must necessarily vary with the circumstances of the season. The innumerable springs and rivulets with which the country abounds, renders unnecessary the laborious processes by which water is supplied to the continent of India, where the soil is sandy. Under very favourable circumstances the rate of produce is said to rise as high as 140; but the common produce is only thirty for one. The grains of paddy are rubbed out with the feet, which is a very painful and awkward mode of clearing the rice from the ear. The upland rice does not keep more than twelve months, and the lowland shows signs of decay in six months; but in the husk both will keep much longer. The northern part of the coast, under the government of Acheen, yield large quantities of rice.

The next important object is the coco-nut tree, which with the betel-nut and bamboo require little cultivation or attention. There is also the sago tree and a great variety of palms. The sugar-cane is very generally cultivated, but not in large quantities, and more frequently for the purpose of chewing the juicy reed than for the manufacture of sugar, which is usually imported from Java. Maize, chili, pepper, turmeric, ginger, coriander, and cummin-seed, are raised in the gardens of the natives. Hemp is ex-

tensively cultivated, not for the purpose of making ropes, but an intoxicating preparation called bang, which they smoke with their tobacco. Small plantations of the latter plant are every where met with.

It is impossible, within moderate bounds, to enumerate all the plants and shrubs this luxuriant island produces; the following are some of the most remarkable: a dwarf species of mulberry is planted for silkworms, which are reared, but not to any great extent, and the raw article produced is of an inferior quality. The castor-oil plant grows wild in abundance, especially near the sea-shore; and the elastic gum vine, or caoutchouc, is also found. From the indigo plant dye is extracted, and generally used in a liquid state. Brazil wood is common in Malay countries, as is also ubar, red wood, resembling logwood in its properties.

The mangosteen *(garcinia mangostana)*, called by the natives mangista, exclusively belongs to the archipelago and ultra-Gangetic nations, and has by general consent obtained, in the opinion of Europeans, the pre-eminence among Indian fruits. Its characteristic quality is extreme delicacy of flavour, without being rich or luscious. Several species of the bread-fruit tree, the jack, mangoe, plantains, pine-apples (which the natives eat with salt), oranges, guavas, custard apples, papaws, tamarinds, cashew apples, pomegranates, and a multitude of other fruits without European names, are produced on this island. Grapes are raised by Europeans, but not cultivated by the natives; and there is a great profusion of flowers of a strong fragrance, and odoriferous shrubs.

The camphor-tree grows principally in the Batta country, on the north-west side of Sumatra, from the line to about three degrees north, and is not to be found south of the equator. It is also found in Borneo in nearly the same parallel of latitude; but trees of equal size are not known to exist in any other part of the world; the Sumatran camphor selling in China for twelve times the price of that from Japan. It is found in a concrete state, occupying cavities and fissures in the heart of the tree; but not above one tree in 300 contains this valuable substance, which is likely to rise to an enormous cost, as the tree is immediately cut down. The Puhn upas, or poison-tree, about which so many extraordinary tales have been told, is found in the woods. The poison is certainly deleterious, but not so potent as has been represented. The tree itself does no manner of harm to those around it; and persons may sit under its shade, or birds light on it, without sustaining the slightest injury.

The quadrupeds of this island are generally such as are found elsewhere in the East. The buffaloe supplies milk, butter, and beef, and is the only animal employed in domestic labour. Its motions while working are extremely slow, but steady; the work it performs, however, falls greatly short of what might have been expected from its size and apparent strength. They are not found in a wild state, being too much exposed to the attacks of the tiger; but only the weaker sorts and the females fall a prey to this savage, as the sturdy male buffaloe can withstand the first vigorous blow from the tiger's paw, on which the issue of the battle usually turns. The Sumatran tiger is of a very large size; some have been known to measure eighteen inches across the forehead. Their chief subsistence is probably the unfortunate monkeys, with which the woods abound.

The cow called sapi and jawi is obviously a stranger to the country, and does not appear to be yet naturalized. The breed of horses is small, well made, and hardy, and are brought down to the coast from the interior, nearly in a wild state. In the Batta country they are eaten, which is a custom also in Celebes. The sheep are a small breed, probably imported from Bengal; the other animals are the hog and the goat, both domestic and wild, the otter, the rat, cat, and

dog. Of the latter, those brought from Europe degenerate in the course of time to curs, with erect ears.

Elephants are numerous in the forests, but, excepting a few kept for state by the king of Acheen, they are not domesticated in any part of the country; rhinoceroses, single and double-horned, are also found. The horn is esteemed an antidote against poison by the natives, and on that account made into drinking cups. The hippopotamus is found in Sumatra, and also the bear, which is small and black, and climbs the coco-nut tree in order to devour the tender part or cabbage. There are many species of the deer kind, and the varieties of the monkey tribe are innumerable. Here are also sloths, squirrels, stinkards, civet-cats, tiger-cats, porcupines, hedge-hogs, pangolins, bats of all kinds, alligators, guanos, cameleons, flying lizards, tortoises, and turtle. The house lizards are in length from four inches down to one, and are the largest reptiles that can walk in an inverted position. One of these, large enough to devour a cockroach, runs along the ceiling of a room, and in that posture seizes its prey. The tail of these reptiles when broken off grows again.

In 1824 a colossal orang outang was killed on the north-west coast, of which Dr. Clarke Abel has given a detailed description in the Asiatic Researches. When first accidentally discovered in the woods by Captain Cornfoot and the crew of a country ship, he exhibited the appearance of a tall, manlike figure, covered with shining brown hair, walking erect, with a waddling gait, but sometimes accelerating his motion with his hands, and occasionally impelling himself forward with the bough of a tree. When attacked he displayed surprising strength, agility, and retention of life, and only died after receiving numerous deadly wounds from guns, spears, and missiles. His stature was at the lowest computation six feet, at the highest nearly eight, but was in fact seven, the body well proportioned, with a broad expanded chest and narrow waist. His chin was fringed with a beard, his arms long, even in proportion to his height, and in relation to the arms of men, but his legs in some respects much shorter. His organs of generation were not conspicuous, and seemed small in proportion to his size; his teeth and appearance indicated that he was young. When brought on board ship he was full a head taller than any man in the vessel, measuring seven feet in what might be called his ordinary standing posture, and eight feet when he was suspended to be skinned.

With animals of the frog kind the swamps every where teem, and their noise on the approach of rain is tremendous. They furnish nutriment to the snakes, which are of all sizes, and a large proportion of them harmless. These reptiles will swallow animals twice or thrice their own apparent circumference, having in their throats a compressive force that gradually reduces the prey to convenient dimensions. The shores supply crayfish, prawns, shrimps, crabs, the kima or gigantic cockle, an inferior species of oyster, muscles, sea-eggs, &c. Among the fish are the dugong, a large animal of the mammalia order, with two strong pectoral fins, and is the only animal known to graze at the bottom of the sea, without legs, the grampus whale, violiers, so named from the peculiarity of its dorsal fin resembling a sail, sharks, skates, the muræna, gymnotus, rock-cod, pomfret, mullet, the flying fish, and many others.

The variety of birds is considerable, and consists of the Sumatran pheasant, peacocks, eagles and vultures, kites and crows, jackdaws, king's-fishers, the buceros, storks, the common fowl, domestic and wild, the snipe, coot, plover, pigeons, quails, starlings, swallows, minas, parrots, parroquets, geese, ducks, teal, &c. The bird of paradise is not found here, and the cassowary is brought from Java. The loory is brought from the islands still further east.

The whole island swarms with in-

sects, among which are cock-roaches, crickets, bees, flies of all sorts, musquitoes, scorpions, centipedes, and water and land leeches. The fire-fly is larger than the common fly, and emits a light as if by respiration, which is so great that words on paper may be distinguished by holding one in the hand. Ants exist in immense numbers and varieties, which differ from each other in taste when put into the mouth. Some are hot and acrid, some bitter, and some sour. The large red ant bites severely, and usually leaves its head, as the bee its sting, in the wound. The Chinese dainty, named indiscriminately biche-de-mar, swallo, tripang, or sea-slug, is collected from the rocks, and dried in the sun for the China market.

Of the productions of Sumatra which are regarded as articles of commerce, the most abundant and formerly the most important, was pepper. Owing to the mode of cultivating the pepper vine, the ports and districts which one year are the most productive, are found in a short time afterwards to yield but an inconsiderable quantity. With respect to its qualities, the best is that of Malabar; the next is produced on the coasts of the gulf of Siam; then follow those of Calantan on the Malay peninsula, Borneo, the west coast of Sumatra, and last Rhio in the straits. The total produce of pepper has been roughly estimated at 45,000,000 of pounds. In 1822 pepper cargoes were obtained on the west coast of Sumatra by twenty-seven American ships, six country ships, four large French ships, besides 500 tons exported by the East-India Company. Nearly the whole of this trade is in the hands of foreigners, and finds its way to Europe and America, and a small proportion to China. At the above date Trumah was by far the most considerable pepper district on the west coast of Sumatra.

On the capture of the Moluccas in 1796 the nutmeg and clove plants were introduced at Bencoolen, and have since so rapidly increased, that in 1825 it was expected the produce of the first would amount to 89,000 pounds, and of the second to 34,000 pounds, besides 22,000 pounds of mace. The production of camphor has been already noticed, but is likely to decrease annually, as the natives cut down a great many trees at random before they find one that contains a sufficient quantity to repay their labour, although always assisted in their research by a professional conjuror. The whole quantity brought for sale rarely exceeds 6,650 pounds. The Japan camphor is of a very inferior quality.

Benzoin or benjamin is found almost exclusively in the Batta country. The best sort is sent to Europe, and the inferior sort is exported to Arabia, Persia, and some parts of Hindostan, where it is burned to perfume their houses and temples. From England it is re-exported to the Roman Catholic and Mahomedan countries to be used as incense. It is also employed in medicine as a styptic, and forms the basis of Turlington's drops. Cassia is also produced and exported, and rattans furnish yearly many cargoes. The annual and the shrub cotton are cultivated by the natives, but only in sufficient quantities to supply their own wants. The silk-cotton is a most beautiful raw material, but owing to the shortness and brittleness of the staple is unfit for the reel and loom, and is only applied to the degrading purpose of stuffing pillows and mattresses. The coffee tree is universally planted, but the berry is not of a good quality, probably owing to want of skill in the management. Among other articles of commerce are dammer, a species of dragon's-blood, a drug obtained from a large species of rattan; gambir, a juice extracted from the leaves of a plant of the same name, lignum aloes, and aguilla wood, highly prized in the East for its fragrant scent while burning.

The forests of Sumatra contain an inexhaustible store and endless variety of timber trees, many sorts of which are capable of being applied to ship-building, but the teak does not

appear to be indigenous to the island, although it flourishes both to the north and south, in Java and Pegu. The other remarkable trees are the poon, so named from a Malay word signifying wood in general, and is preferred for masts and spars; the camphor wood is used for carpenters' purposes; the iron wood, named from its hardness; the marban, used as beams for ships and houses; and the penaga, valuable as crooked timber for frames and knees. In addition to these are the ebony, the kayn gadis, a wood possessing the flavour and qualities of sassafras, the rangi, supposed to be the manchineel tree of the West-Indies, has a resemblance to mahogany. Of the various sorts of trees producing dammer, some are also valuable as timber, and here also is found the spreading banyan tree of Hindostan.

Gold is procured in the central parts of the island, and Menancabow has always been esteemed the richest in this metal. In the districts inland from Padang, which is the principal mart, it is collected from mines and from the channels of rivers; pieces of pure gold have also been occasionally found weighing nine ounces and upwards. Probably only one-half of all the gold procured reaches the hands of Europeans, yet it is asserted on good authority that from 10,000 to 12,000 ounces have been annually received at Padang alone; 2,000 at Nalaboo; 800 at Natal; and 600 at Mocomoco. The merchants carry the gold from the interior to the sea-coast, where they barter it for iron and iron working tools, opium, and the fine piece-goods of Bengal, Madras, and Europe. It used formerly to be purchased at the maritime ports at the rate of £3. 5*s.* per ounce, but afterwards rose much higher. In many parts of the country it is employed instead of coin, every man carrying a small pair of scales about with him. At Acheen small thin gold coins were formerly struck, but the coinage has been abandoned in modern times. Silver is not known as a production of Sumatra.

Tin is a very considerable article of commerce, but the mines are situated on the island of Banca. Iron ore is dug on this island, but not in large quantities, the consumption of the natives being supplied by English and Swedish bar-iron. Sulphur is procured from the volcanoes, and yellow arsenic is an article of traffic. In the Kuttaun country there are extensive caves, from the soil of which nitre is extracted, and from similar caverns the edible birds'-nests are procured for the China market, to which also the biche-de-mar or sea-slug is also sent. The other exports are bees'-wax, gum lac, and ivory. Elephants were formerly exported from Acheen to the Coromandel coast, in vessels built for the purpose, but this trade has long declined.

The beautiful gold and silver fillagree work of Sumatra has long been celebrated and admired, and is a matter of still greater curiosity from the extreme coarseness of the tools employed in the manufacture. From a piece of old iron hoop the wire-drawing instrument is made; a hammer-head stuck in a block serves for an anvil; a pair of compasses is seen composed of two old nails tied together at one end. The gold is fused in a piece of a rice pot; in general they use no bellows, but blow the fire with their mouths through a joint of bamboo. If the quantity of gold to be melted is considerable, three or four persons sit round the furnace, which is an old iron pot, and blow together.

But little skill is shown by the natives in forging iron. They make nails, but seldom use them in building. They are ignorant of the use of the saw, except where it has been introduced by Europeans. Painting and drawing they are strangers to; in carving they are fanciful, their designs grotesque, and always out of nature. Silk and cotton cloths manufactured by themselves are worn by the natives in all parts of the country. Their looms and weaving apparatus are extremely defective. They manufacture different kinds of earthen-

ware of a coarse fabric, and extract the coco-nut oil, which is in general use. Gunpowder is manufactured in various parts of the island, but less in the southern provinces than among the people of Menancabow, the Battas and the Acheenese, whose frequent wars require large supplies. The powder is very imperfectly granulated, being often hastily prepared in small quantities for immediate use. Salt is mostly supplied by cargoes imported, but they also manufacture it themselves by a very tedious process.

Among the modern political divisions of the island on the north-west coast, the principal are the empire of Menancabow and the Malays; in the next place the Acheenese; then the Battas, the Rejangs, and next to them the people of Lampong. The chain of islands which extends in a line nearly parallel to the western coast, at the distance of little more than a degree, are inhabited by a race or races of people apparently from the same original stock as those of the interior of Sumatra. Their genuineness of character has been preserved to a remarkable degree, whilst the islands on the east side are peopled with Malays. Until about 120 years ago the southern coast of Sumatra as far as the Urei river was dependent on the king of Bantam in Java, whose lieutenant came yearly to Bencoolen or Sillebar to collect pepper, and fill up the vacancies.

Nearly all the forms of government throughout Sumatra are a mixture of the feudal and patriarchal; but the political system of the people near the sea-coast is much influenced by the power of the Europeans, who exercise, in fact, the functions of sovereignty, and with great advantage to their subjects. The country over which the East-India Company's influence formerly extended were preserved in a state of peace, and had it not been for this coercion, every village would have been in a state of perpetual hostility with its neighbour. In 1819 the whole population of these districts was about 60,000 persons, thinly scattered over an ungrateful soil, along a line of almost inaccessible coast 400 miles in length, and remarkable for their lazy untractable habits. The form of government among the Rejangs near Bencoolen applies generally to the orang ulu, or inhabitants of the interior. Among the hills and woods property in land depends upon occupancy, unless where fruit trees have been planted; and as there is seldom any determined boundary between neighbouring villages, such marks are rarely disturbed.

In 1826 the north-east coast of Sumatra was nominally subject to five sovereigns, *viz.* the sultans of Palembang, Jambee, Indragiri, Siak, and Acheen, but it is in fact under an indefinite number of petty chiefs, whose respective domains are completely shut out and insulated from each other by forests, swamps, and jungles. The most populous and fertile is unquestionably Palembang. The islands of Rancao, Papan, Saratas, and Bancalis are partly inhabited by Malays, but chiefly by another race not yet converted to the Arabian faith.

The laws of the Sumatrans are properly a set of long-established customs, handed down to them from their ancestors, the authority for which is founded on usage and general consent. The law which renders all the members of a family reciprocally bound for each other's debts, forms a strong bond of connection among them. When a man dies his effects descend to his children in equal shares. The Sumatran code admits of pecuniary compensation for murder, on which account their laws take no cognizance of the distinction between a wilful murder and what we term manslaughter. Corporeal punishment of any kind is rare.

The place of the greatest solemnity for administering an oath is the burying ground of their ancestors, and they have certain relics or swearing apparatus, which they produce on important occasions. These generally

consist of an old broken creese, a fractured gun-barrel, some copper bullets, or any thing else to which chance or caprice has annexed the idea of extraordinary virtue. These they generally dip in water, which the person who swears drinks off, after pronouncing a form of words. At Manna, the relic formerly most venerated, was a gun-barrel, which, when produced to be sworn on, was carried to the spot wrapped up in silk, and under an umbrella. The Sumatran, impressed with the idea of invisible powers, but not of his own immortality, regards with awe the supposed instruments of their agency, and swears on creeses, bullets, and gun-barrels, weapons of personal destruction.

The right of slavery is established in this island, as it is universally throughout the East; but few instances occur of the country people actually having slaves, although they are common in the Malayan or seaport towns. At Bencoolen the East-India Company had a body of negro slaves, who were held in contempt and detestation by the natives, who considered them merely as humanized devils, and lost no opportunity of doing them an injury.

The inhabitants of Sumatra are rather below the middle size, their limbs for the most part slight, but well-shaped, and particularly small about the wrists and ancles. The women follow the preposterous custom of flattening the noses and compressing the skulls of children newly born, and also pull out the ears to make them stand at right angles with the head. The males destroy their beards and keep their chins remarkably smooth. Their complexion is properly yellow, wanting the red tinge that constitutes a tawny or copper colour. The females of the upper classes, not exposed to the rays of the sun, approach to a degree of fairness. Persons of superior rank encourage the growth of their hand-nails to an extraordinary length; the hands of the natives in general, and even of the half-breed, are always cold. The inland natives are superior in strength and size to the Malays of the coast, and possess also fairer complexions. Among the hills the inhabitants are subject to monstrous wens or goitres on the throat.

Both sexes have the extraordinary custom of filing and disfiguring their teeth, which are naturally white and beautiful, from the simplicity of their food. Many, particularly the women of the Lampong country, have their teeth rubbed down even with their gums; others have them formed into points like equilateral triangles, while some file off no more than the outer extremity, and then blacken them with the empyreumatic oil of the coco-nut shell. The great men set their teeth in gold, by casing with a plate of that metal under the row; which ornament, contrasted with the black dye, has by candle-light a very splendid effect. Sometimes it is indented to the shape of their teeth, but more usually it is quite plain, and it is not removed either to sleep or eat. The original clothing of the Sumatrans is the same with that found by navigators among the South-sea islands, and in Europe generally called Otaheitean cloth. It is still used among the Rejangs as their working dress, but the country people now in a great measure conform to the costume of the Malays.

The dusuns, or villages of the Sumatrans, for the inhabitants are so few that they are not entitled to the name of towns, are always situated on the banks of a river or lake, for the convenience of bathing and of transporting goods. Their buildings are of wood and bamboos, covered with palm leaves. The frames of the houses rest on stout wooden pillars about six or eight feet high, and are ascended to by a piece of strong bamboo cut into notches. Detached buildings in the country are raised ten or twelve feet from the ground, to be secure against tigers; the furniture is extremely simple, and neither knives or forks are required, as in eating they take up the rice and other victuals between their fingers

and thumb, throwing it into their mouth by a jerk of the latter.

Their art of medicine consists almost entirely in the application of simples. Every old man and woman is a physician, and their reward depends on their success: but they frequently manage to procure a small sum in advance under the pretext of purchasing charms. In fevers, during the paroxysm, they pour over the sufferer a quantity of very cold water, which afterwards brings on a copious perspiration. The venereal disease, although common in the Malay bazars, is little known in the interior.

On the sea-coast the Malay language is intermixed with the Batta and other original languages. The Malays fix the length of the year at 354 days, or twelve lunar months of twenty-nine and a half days each; the genuine Sumatrans count their years from the number of their crops of grain. They are fond of music, and have many instruments, mostly borrowed from the Chinese. The Malays of Sumatra use the Arabic character, and have incorporated a great many Arabic and also Portuguese words in their language. The other principal languages of Sumatra are the Batta, the Rejang, and the Lampong; the difference between them being chiefly marked by their being expressed in distinct written characters. They write on the inner bark of a tree and on bamboos, and form their lines from the left hand towards the right.

The native Sumatran of the interiors differs in some respects from the Malay of the coast, being mild, peaceable, and forbearing, unless roused by violent provocation. He is also temperate and sober, his diet being mostly vegetable, and his only beverage water. Their hospitality is great and their manners simple, and they are in general, except among the chiefs, devoid of the Malay cunning and chicane. On the other hand they are litigious, indolent, addicted to gaming, dishonest in their dealings with strangers, which they do not consider as any moral defect, regardless of truth, mean, servile; and although cleanly in their persons, filthy in their apparel, which they never wash. They are careless and improvident of the future, and make no advances in improving their condition. The Macassars and Buggesses who come annually from Celebes in their prows to trade, are looked up to by the Sumatrans and Malays as their superiors in manners. They also derive part of the respect paid to them from the richness of their cargoes, and the spirit with which they spend the produce in gaming, cock-fighting, and smoking opium.

Through every rank of the people there prevails a strong propensity to gaming, and to cock-fighting they are still more passionately addicted. The artificial spur used resembles the blade of a scymetar, and proves a much more destructive weapon than the European spur. The Malay breed of cocks are much esteemed by connoisseurs who have had an opportunity of trying them. In some places they match quails in the manner of cocks, which fight with great inveteracy, and endeavour to seize each other by the tongue.

The Sumatrans generally, but more particularly the indigenous Malays, are much addicted to the smoking of opium. The species of poppy that produces it (the *papaver somniferum*) not growing on the island, the narcotic is imported annually in large quantities from Bengal, in chests of 140 pounds each. It is mixed up with tobacco in the form of pills about the size of a pea, which quantity is consumed at one whiff. The smoke is never discharged by the mouth, but usually receives vent through the nostrils, and sometimes by adepts through the passage of the eyes and ears. Although so much opium is smoked in this island, the practice of running-a-muck (called mengamok by the natives) is by no means frequent. It is remarkable that at Batavia, where the criminals when taken alive were formerly broken alive on the wheel with every aggravation of cruelty, mucks often

occurred, while at Bencoolen, where they were executed in the easiest manner, the offence was always extremely rare. The Malays of the west coast have been so long accustomed to the mild government of the British that their manners and habits are considerably improved, while on the east coast they continue ferocious, sanguinary, and treacherous.

The original Sumatran vessel for boiling rice, and which is still used for that purpose, is a joint of green bamboo, By the time the rice is dressed the utensil is nearly destroyed by the fire, but it resists the flame so long as there is moisture within. Although the natives subsist in a great measure on vegetable food, they are not restrained by any prejudice of caste from other aliments, and accordingly at their feasts the flesh of the buffaloe, the goat, and fowls, are served up. Their dishes are almost all dressed as curries, and their flesh meat is cooked immediately after it is killed, while it is still warm. Sago, though common, is not in such general use as among the more eastern islands, where it is employed as a substitute for rice. When these articles of subsistence fail, the Sumatran finds others in the woods; hence famines are never attended with any very destructive consequences.

The natives of Sumatra are in general good speakers, the gift of oratory being natural to them. A Sumatran ever scrupulously abstains from pronouncing his own name, not from any superstitious motive, but merely as a punctilio in manners; and it occasions him infinite embarrassment when a stranger, unacquainted with their customs, requires it of him; on these occasions, as soon as he recovers from his confusion, he solicits the interposition of his neighbour. They can seldom give an accurate account of their age; but so far as can be inferred from observation, not a great proportion of the men attain the age of fifty, and sixty is accounted a long life. Where Mahomedanism prevails, boys are circumcised between the sixth and tenth years.

The ancient and genuine religion of the Rejangs (the Sumatran race with which we are best acquainted), if in fact they ever had any, is now scarcely to be traced, and what adds to the difficulty of procuring information is, that those who have not been initiated in the Mahomedan doctrines, regard those who have as persons advanced a step in knowledge beyond them. If by religion be meant a public or private form of worship of any kind, and if prayers, processions, meetings, offerings, images or priests, are all or any of them necessary to constitute it, the Rejangs are totally without religion, and cannot be with propriety even termed Pagans, if that phrase is understood to convey the idea of mistaken worship. They neither worship God, devil, nor idol. They are not, however, without superstitious beliefs of many kinds, and have a confused notion, although perhaps derived from their intercouse with other people, of some superior beings who have the power of rendering themselves visible and invisible at pleasure. These they call orang alus, fine or impalpable beings, and regard them as possessing the faculty of doing good and evil, but most inclined to the latter. They also call them maleikat and gin, which are the angels and evil spirits of the Arabians, and the idea was probably borrowed at the same time with the name. They have no word in their language to express the person of God except the Allah Taala of the Malays, corrupted by them to Ulah-talo, and where untinctured by Mahomedanism, the Sumatrans do not appear to have any notion of a future state.

The superstition that has the strongest influence on their minds, and which approaches the nearest to a species of religion, is that which leads them to venerate, almost to the point of worshipping, the tombs and remains of their decensed ancestors. They have an imperfect

notion of a metempsychosis, but not in any degree systematic, nor considered as an article of religious faith. They seem to think in general that tigers are actuated by the spirits of deceased men, and speak of them with a degree of awe. They relate also of a spot in the interior country where the tigers have a court, and maintain a regular form of government, and have their houses thatched with women's hair. The Sumatrans are also firmly persuaded that various particular persons are what they term betuah (sacred, impassive, invulnerable, and not liable to accident), and this quality extends to things inanimate, such as ships and boats.

No attempts have ever been made by missionaries or others (until very recently) to convert the inhabitants of this island to Christianity. Of the many thousands baptized in the Eastern isles by the celebrated Francis Xavier in the sixteenth century, not one of their descendants are now found to retain a ray of the light imparted to them. As it was novelty only, and not conviction, that induced the original converts to embrace a new faith, the impression lasted no longer than the sentiment which recommended it, and disappeared as rapidly as the missionary. Under the influence, however, of the Spanish government at Manilla, and of the Dutch at Batavia, there are many native Christians, educated as such from their childhood. The neglect of missions to Sumatra is one of the causes that the interior of the country is so little known to the civilized world.

Legal disputes are extremely common in Sumatra, and by far the greater number originate in the intricacy of the marriage contracts, the difficulties of which, both precedent and subsequent, are increased by the Sumatrans to a degree unknown in the most refined states. A wife is obtained by various modes of purchase, and when the full sum is paid the female becomes to all intents and purposes the slave of the husband, who may at any time sell her, making the first offer to her relations. The debts due for these sales constitute in fact the chief part of their riches, and a person is reckoned in good circumstances who has several due to him for his daughters, sisters, aunts, and great aunts. Prostitution is unknown in the interior, being confined to the more polite bazars of the sea-coast, where there is usually a concourse of sailors and other strangers. Adultery is punished by fine, but the crime is rare, and lawsuits on the subject still less frequent. The husband, it is probable, either conceals his shame, or revenges it with his own hand. The customs of the Sumatrans permit their having as many wives as they can purchase, or afford to maintain, but it is only among the chiefs that instances occur of their having more than one.

From various sources of information sufficiently distinct from each other, the conclusion may be drawn that the Mahomedan religion had not made any considerable progress in the interior of Sumatra earlier than the fourteenth century. The province of Menancabow, although situated inland, is by far the most completely converted, the inhabitants being wholly Mahomedans. Perhaps it is less surprising that this one kingdom should have been completely converted, than that so many districts should remain to this day without any religion whatever. Every thing conspires to induce the Sumatran to embrace a system of belief and scheme of instruction, in which there is nothing repugnant to prejudices already imbibed; he relinquishes no favourite ancient worship to adopt a new, and is manifestly a gainer by the exchange.

By the recent treaty concluded between Great Britain and the Netherlands a most important alteration took place in the colonial relations of Sumatra, as by its conditions Bencoolen and all the other British possessions in that island were ceded to the King of the Netherlands in exchange for the Dutch settlements

on the continent of India, including the town and fortress of Malacca; the cessions to take place on the first of March 1825.—(*Marsden, Singapoor Chronicle, Dr. Abel, Anderson, Philips, Raffles, &c.*)

SUMBA.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, fifty-three miles E. by N. from Ahmednugger; lat. 19° 13′ N., lon. 75° 53′ E.

SUMBHAWA.—A large island in the Eastern seas, situated between the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude, and separated from Lombhook by the straits of Allas. In length it may be estimated at 180 miles, by 40 the average breadth. Near the middle it is deeply indented by a large gulf, which almost divides the island into two portions. The principal towns are Bima and Sumbhawa. The other towns and districts are Dompo Tomboro, Sangur, and Pekat, all under different chiefs, who formerly acknowledged subordination to the Dutch. In A.D. 1713 the Dutch banished the king of Tomboro to the Cape of Good Hope.

This island produces considerable quantities of teak, the whole of the hills north-east from Bima being covered with that valuable timber, but the demand is so great that the trees are seldom allowed to grow more than a foot in diameter. In Dompo, which occupies the central portion of Sumbhawa, the trees being the property of the sovereign are better preserved and attain full size, but the difficulty of transporting them to the sea-coast is very great. Gold-dust is found in the same district, and pearls are fished for in a large bay to the westward of Bima, as also at Pekat. The breed of horses is good and resembles the Arab, but they seldom exceed thirteen hands in height; they are exported to Java and the neighbouring islands. The most remarkable phenomenon is the great volcano of Tomboro, which burst forth with incredible fury in 1815.

The Bima language extends over the eastern division of Sumbhawa, and the western portion of the island of Endé denominated Floris, by the early Portuguese navigators. The dialect of Sumbhawa, which prevails in the districts not subject to the sultan of Bima, is of a more mixed character than that of Bima. Neither the latter nor the Subhawa have any peculiar character, but use indifferently the Buggess or Malay character.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, Thorn, Raffles, Leyden, Crawfurd, &c.*)

SUMBHAWA.—A town on the island of Sumbhawa, about 100 miles to the westward of Bima. This place stands on a large bay, open to the north and north-west, and a good harbour stretches inland between the reefs on the west side of the entrance. In A.D. 1814 this town was governed by a raja named Mahomed, subordinate to the authority of the sultan of Bima.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

SUMBHULPOOR *(Sambhalpura)*.—A large district in the province of Gundwana, which, taken in its most extensive sense, is bounded on the north by Sirgoojah, Juspoor, and Chuta Nagpoor; east by Singhboom, Kunjeur, Ongole, Talcher, Autmallick, and Boad; south by Boad and Patna; and west by Patna and Choteesghur. Sumbhulpoor proper has to the north Ryepoor and Gangpoor; to the east Bombra and Kheracote; to the south Sonepoor and Patna; and to the east Boora Sumba, Phoolghur, and Saringhur. It is divided by the Mahanndy into two unequal portions, the largest of which lies on the right bank of that river. Of the Khalsa Gurjats and dependent pergunnahs, Koolabeera, Burpulee, and Pudampoor among the first, and Sonepoor, Saringhur, Kheracote, and Ryeghur of the last, are the most important. Sumbhulpoor is remarkable as containing within it a very high and probably salubrious land called Myn Pat, the source of several rivers, of which the Hudsoo is the most remarkable. The height of this tract in 1822 had not been ascertained. The valley of Sumbhulpoor, according to the late Dr. Voysey's observations, is only 410 feet above the level of the sea.

Sumbhulpoor consists almost equally of hill and dale, of jungle and cultivated land; but the country on the right bank of the Mahanuddy is the most fertile and thickly populated. The left bank yields abundance of rice, but for this grain there is little internal demand; neither is there any market for sugar, were its cultivation extended. Swamps and jeels are very abundant until the month of April, when they partially dry up and become covered with aquatic vegetation. It is remarkable that stagnant water is not by the natives of this province, or of India in general, deemed deleterious, they consequently never think of making drains; on the contrary they preserve it as long as possible for the purposes of ablution and irrigation. The pergunnahs east of the Mahanuddy produce considerable quantities of iron, but it is scarce and dear in the western portion of Sumbhulpoor. Cotton is plentiful and cheap, but the manufactures are dear and their quality coarse. Little skill is possessed by any class of artificers, including even the gold and diamond workers, two apparently difficult crafts, which yet frequently flourish among half savages. There is no reason to suppose that any commercial intercourse of the least importance ever existed with the neighbouring states, the whole collectively and individually appearing to have been torn to pieces by internal dissensions from the beginning of time. Diamonds have long been a staple article in Sumbhulpoor, being, as well as gold-dust, found in the alluvial soil of many streams and rivers, and more especially of the Mahanuddy, where further particulars are detailed. The great mass of population consists of Hindoos of the lowest castes, but the chiefs and landholders here, as elsewhere, claim the dignity of Rajpoots.

The territory of Sumbhulpoor was anciently comprehended in the Hindoo division of Gundwana, and composed part of the state of Gurrah, but during the reign of Aurengzebe it was formally annexed to the soubah of Allahabad, although its subjugation to the Mogul empire was little more than nominal. It afterwards, along with the rest of the province, fell under the sway of the Nagpoor Maharattas, who extorted occasional tribute, but interfered little with the management of the interior, which was kept in a state of constant agitation from the contests between the rajas and dewans, the first to regain, the last to keep possession of the power and property they had usurped. Money was extorted in all ways, and more especially by placing stones on the party, until he complied or expired. Among the sources of revenue was the sale of the widows of the Telee (oilmen) and other low castes, who on the decease of their husbands became the immediate property of the state.

In this condition of society there were no traces of municipal institutions or established rules for the redress of wrongs or punishment of crimes. The rajas possessed despotic power, and were so reverenced that even the female apartments of the Gond and other inferior zemindars were thrown open when he visited them. The distribution of justice was limited to one object, the filling of the raja's or dewan's treasury; adultery, fornication, and sorcery had their respective prices, and suicide being remarkably prevalent among the females of Sumbhulpoor, their surviving relations were fined for allowing them to escape. The heads of villages were almost universally Brahmins, whose sacred character afforded essential protection to their peasantry; but when conquered by the Maharattas no regard was paid to the priests, who had stones placed on their breasts as readily as the lower castes. Each zemindar of the dependent pergunnahs had full power over the lives and property of their ryots.

In A.D. 1818 the sovereignty of Sumbhulpoor was transferred to the British government, and in November of the same year Raja Jeyte

Singh died, leaving one son, Maharaja Sahy, who had long been imprisoned at Nagpoor by the Maharattas. In 1817 the total revenue collected from Sumbhulpoor and its dependencies, Boad and Autmallick, was 1,01,157 Nagpoor rupees, above one-third less in value than sicca rupees. In 1821 the following rajaships and zemindars were dependent on Sumbhulpoor, and under the control of the governor-general's agent: 1. Gangpoor; 2. Sonepoor; 3. Bombra; 4. Bonej; 5. Autmalick; 6. Boad; 7. Saringpoor; 8. Patna; 9. Fooljah; 10. Suktee; 11. Burgur; 12. Boorasumba; 13. Burpalee; 14. Koolabera; 15. Rampoor; 16. Lera; 17. Rajpoor; 18. Chunderpoor; 19. Puddunpoor. —(*Roughsedge, Ferguson, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SUMBHULPOOR.—The capital of the preceding division of the Gundwana province, situated on the east side of the Mahanuddy river, 167 miles W.N.W. from Cuttack; lat. 21° 8′ N., lon. 83° 37′ E. This place extends north and south about two miles, and contains some Hindoo pagodas and other solid buildings. The fort is of an oblong shape, stretching about half a mile along the banks of the river, and is surrounded by a wall of masonry, furnished with cannon of various calibre, but the whole incapable of making any protracted defence against artillery.

During the rains, the Mahanuddy (which opposite to the fort is a mile broad) runs with such rapidity that boats make the passage from Sumbhulpoor to Cuttack in two days. Most of the diamonds found in the channel of the river are obtained between the fort of Sumbhulpoor and the mouth of the Heeb, a large stream that flows into the Mahanuddy fourteen miles north of the fort. The surrounding territory is sufficiently productive of grain, cotton, and sugar, when under proper cultivation, but the climate is so pestiferous that it has proved the grave of almost every European officer who has been stationed here.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

SUMBUL (*Sambhala*).—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-one miles N.W. from Bareily; lat. 28° 37′ N., lon. 78° 29′ E.

SUMBUL RIVER. — See CHUMBUL RIVER.

SUMNAUTH.—See PUTTAN SOMNAUTH.

SUMPTER.—The capital of a petty chief in the province of Agra, under the British protection, situated fifty-eight miles S.E. from Gualior; lat. 25° 50′ N., lon. 78° 50′ E.

SUNDA (*straits of*).—The arm of the sea which separates the large islands of Sumatra and Java is known to Europeans by this name; by the Malays it is termed Sunda Kalapa. The length of this channel, taken from the flat point to Vrakens or Hog's point, is about seventy miles, and on the opposite coast, from Java head to Bantam point, about ninety miles.

In the mouth of the straits lies Prince's island, by the situation of which two passages are formed, one between Prince's island and Java, made use of for the most part by ships which have to pass the straits during the south-east monsoon, in order that, sailing close in with the Java shore, they may soon get within anchoring depth, and escape all danger of being driven to sea by the currents, which at that time of the year set strongly out of the straits to the westward. The other passage, which is called by seamen the great channel, sometimes serves also as an entrance to the straits during the south-east monsoon; but it is with the greatest difficulty, and after continual struggling with the south-easterly wind and the current, that this can be effected.

In the narrowest point of the straits, and opposite to Hog's point on Sumatra, lies an island that on account of its situation has been called Thwart-the-way or Middle isle. A strong current runs through on both sides of the island during the whole year, setting with the prevail-

ing easterly or westerly winds either to the north-east or south-west. The chief islands immediately connected with the straits of Sunda are Prince's isle, Krakatan, Thwart-the-way, and Pulo Bahy. The others are very small and insignificant, mostly level, founded on beds of coral, and covered with trees; but the appellation of "Sunda islands" is also applied to the great chain stretching from Acheen-head in Sumatra to an indefinite extent eastward. In the channel between these there is a strong current setting to the northward, and in many parts there are no soundings with lines of fifty fathoms. Along the southern coasts of this chain, which are in general rocky and precipitous, the level of the sea is several feet higher than it is behind the islands, where considerable deposits of mud have at all times been forming.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, &c.*)

SUNDEELA.—A town in the province of Oude, thirty-one miles N.W. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 80° 27′ E.

SUNDEEP (*soma dwipa, the moon isle*).—An island in the province of Bengal, situated at the mouth of the great Megna, formed by the united waters of the Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers, and consisting of alluvial deposits of long accumulation. In length it may be estimated at sixteen miles, by eight the average breadth. It is attached to the Chittagong district, and subordinate to its magistrate; but during the south-west monsoon is frequently cut off by storms from all communication with the continent. There is here a government establishment for the manufacture of salt under the Bulwa and Chittagong agency.

Towards the conclusion of the sixteenth century a number of Portuguese settled on the coasts of Chittagong and Aracan, many of whom had entered into the service of the native princes, and obtained commands and grants of lands. These adventurers were extirpated or expelled from Aracan about A.D. 1607, the few who escaped taking refuge among the islands, where they continued the practice of piracy. Futteh Khan, the Mogul governor of Sundeep, having attempted to suppress them, was himself defeated and killed, and his whole fleet captured. On this event the pirates selected for their chief a common sailor named Sebastian Gonzales, and in 1608 gained possession of Sundeep, after murdering the garrison.

On this success Sebastian established an independent principality; his force amounting to 1,000 Portuguese, 2,000 native troops, 200 cavalry, and eighty vessels of different sizes, well supplied with cannon, with which equipment he soon subdued the adjacent island of Shahabazpoor and several others, which he added to his dominions. With a little common prudence and moderation his power might have attained a great elevation, and been permanent; but he soon disgusted his own subjects by the brutal tyranny of his conduct, and rendered the Moguls and Aracaners hostile by the perfidy of his policy. After many vicissitudes he was abandoned by a large proportion of his followers, and in 1616 was defeated by the raja of Aracan, who conquered Sundeep and the other islands, from whence, under the name of Mughs, the Aracaners infested and devastated the lower districts of Bengal, carrying off the inhabitants into slavery.

Sundeep continued in the possession of these barbarians until A.D. 1666, when Shaista Khan, the Mogul governor of Bengal, having fitted out a strong fleet at Dacca, despatched it down the Megna to attack Sundeep, where the Mughs had erected stockaded fortifications, which they defended with great resolution for a considerable time, but were at length all taken or destroyed. Since that period it remained attached to the Mogul government of Bengal, and devolved along with that province to the East-India Company.—(*Stewart, Crisp, &c.*)

SUNDERBUNDS *(sundari vana, a forest of soondry trees)*.—A woody tract of country on the sea-coast of Bengal, forming the delta of the Ganges, and extending along the bay of Bengal about 180 miles.

This dreary region is composed of a labyrinth of creeks and rivers, all of which are salt except those that communicate immediately with the principal arm of the Ganges, whose numerous natural canals are so disposed as to form a complete inland navigation. In tracing the sea-coast of this delta eight openings are found, each of which appears to be a principal mouth of the Ganges. As a strong presumptive proof of the wandering of this river from one side of the Sunderbunds to the other, it may be observed that there is no appearance of virgin earth between the Tiperah hills on the east, and the district of Burdwan on the west, nor below Dacca and Bauleah on the north. In all the sections of the numerous creeks and rivers nothing appears but sand and black mould in regular strata, until the clay is reached that forms the lower part of their beds; nor is there any substance so coarse as gravel either in the delta or nearer the sea than 400 miles (by the course of the Ganges) at Oudanulla, where a rocky point, part of the base of the neighbouring hills, projects into the river.

The navigation through the Sunderbunds is chiefly effected by means of the tides, there being two distinct passages, the one named the southern or Sunderbund passage, and the other the Balliaghaut passage. The first is the furthest about, and leads through the widest and deepest rivers, and opens into the Hooghly or Calcutta river, about sixty-five miles below the town. The Balliaghaut passage opens into a shallow lake on the east side of Calcutta. The navigation by these passages extends more than 200 miles, through a thick forest, divided into numberless islands by a multitude of channels, so various in point of width, that a vessel has at one time her masts entangled among branches of trees from each side, and at another sails on a broad expanded river, beautifully skirted with woods. The water is every where salt, and the whole wilderness abandoned to wild beasts, except here and there a solitary fakeer. In passing through this jungle the gloomy silence is sometimes relieved by the cooing of the dove, the call of the deer and peacock, the cackling of the hen, the crowing of the cock, the shrieking of parroquets, and the leaping and springing of monkeys from branch to branch. On each side alligators of an enormous size are seen asleep or basking in the sun, so entirely motionless, and so completely resembling a log of wood, that an inexperienced eye is always deceived, and takes them for what they seem, until roused by a shot, they scramble with much activity into the water. During the dry season the lower shores of these rivers are visited by salt-makers and wood-cutters, who then exercise their dreadful trade at the constant hazard of their lives; for royal tigers of the largest size not only appear on the margin, but frequently swim off to, and destroy the people in the boats anchored in the rivers. These passages are open throughout the year, and during the season, when the stream of the Ganges is low, a large proportion of the trade of Bengal passes either by Balliaghaut or Channel creek, but chiefly by the latter.

Many natives are annually carried off and eaten by tigers while cutting wood and making salt; yet several Mahomedan devotees, who pretend to possess charms against their malice, dwell in miserable huts by the river side, and are greatly revered by the passers by of both religions, who present offerings of food and cowries to propitiate their good-will. In the course of time these saints are themselves almost invariably snatched off, but the longer they remain the more they are respected, and a successor is soon found to fill up the vacancy. Besides these fakeers' huts many skeletons of

sheds are seen erected by the wood-cutters, under which they raise a small mound of earth like a grave, and repeat prayers before it preparatory to their commencing operations. Many of these wood-cutters are Hindoos who have assigned to certain gods and goddesses particular portions of the Sunderbunds, in like manner as the Mahomedans have to their respective peers or saints. The Hindoo labourers raise elevations of earth three or four inches high, and about three feet square, upon which they place balls of earth, and having painted them red, perform worship before them, offering rice, flowers, fruits, and Ganges water. The head boatman in the mean time fasts and goes to sleep, when some god or goddess informs him in a dream where wood may be cut without dread of tigers.

It is not practicable to bring into culture the salt marshy lands, for the most part overflowed by the tide; nor is it desirable while so much good land, in more healthy situations, remains unoccupied. The existence of this forest also on the margin of the bay has always been considered important in a military point of view, as presenting a strong natural barrier against maritime invasion along the whole southern frontier of the province. Great quantities of excellent salt are here manufactured, and esteemed of peculiar sanctity, as being extracted by filtration from the mud of the holy Ganges. The forest also supplies the capital with an inexhaustible store of wood for fuel, boat-building, and other purposes.

It has always been understood as a matter of notoriety that this vast tract of waste land is without an owner, except a comparatively small portion on the skirts of the forest claimed by the zemindars, all the remainder being unquestionably at the disposal of government. The well known fact that this labyrinth of wood and rivers is the property of no landholder, was the basis of a plan formerly acted on for bringing into cultivation lands situated in the northern quarter, and more recently for clearing the island of Sagor. Many plans have been undertaken to bring the waste lands of the Sunderbunds into cultivation, but up to 1812 they had all failed, chiefly owing to the difficulties and embarrassments arising from the claims of the zemindars on the lands granted to these new settlers, who naturally desired to have their grants as near as possible to the tracts already inhabited and cultivated, to which the adjacent zemindars always put forth claims of ownership, real or fictitious. To obviate a recurrence of these obstacles, a survey was made in 1812-13, which fixed the northern boundary at the Juboona creek, nearly on a line in an easterly direction with Hooghly, which exhibits the country from thence to Buddertullow in a complete state of cultivation. The result of this survey tended to impress a belief that considerable tracts of land had been brought under tillage and concealed from government. To prevent a repetition of similar fraudulent abstractions, a commissioner was appointed in 1814, with authority to examine the validity of all claims whatever, and also to assess the western portion of those lands.

Various derivations have been assigned to the name by which this tract is designated. By some it has been traced from the soondry tree (the *heritiera robusta*), and also from the word soonder, beautiful; and bon, a forest; by others the name is asserted to be Chunderbund, because it is still comprehended in the ancient zemindary of Chunderdeep. In 1784 the Sunderbunds, Cooch Bahar, and Rangamatty were estimated by Major Rennell to comprehend 37,549 square miles, then conjectured to be all nearly waste, but subsequent investigation has considerably curtailed the extent of these supposed wildernesses.—(*Colebrooke, Rennell, Ward, Rocke, J. Grant, &c.*)

SUNDLEPOOR.—A town in the province of Candeish, six miles from Hindia, which in 1820 belonged to

Sindia and contained 300 inhabitants; lat. 22° 32′ N., lon. 76° 59′ E.

Sundraboni.—A small state lying within the bounds of Macassar, on the island of Celebes. The town stands a little inland on the banks of a river, whence its name originates.—(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

Sungei Tenang.—A country in the interior of Sumatra, situated between the second and third degree of south latitude. The access to this territory is extremely difficult, on account of the different ranges of high mountains covered with forest trees and thick jungle that intervene. It is bounded on the north-west by Korindhi and Serampei; on the west and south-west by Anak Sungei, or Mocomoco, and Ypu district; on the south by Laboon; and on the east by Batang Asei and Pakalang Jambu.

The general produce of this country is maize, paddy, sweet potatoes, common potatoes, tobacco and sugar-cane; and the valleys on the whole are well cultivated. The inhabitants are a thick stout dark race of people, something resembling the Acheenese and generally addicted to the smoking of opium. They usually carry charms about their persons to preserve them from accident, some of which are printed at Batavia or Samarang, in the Dutch, Portuguese and French languages. In addition to the preservation clause, this document cautions purchasers against charms printed in London, as the English would endeavour to counterfeit them, and impose on the buyers, being all cheats.

Every village has a town-hall about 120 feet long, and broad in proportion, the wood-work of which is neatly carved. The dwelling-houses contain five, six, or seven families each, and the country is populous. The inhabitants of Sungei Tenang and Serampei are Mahomedans, and acknowledge themselves subject to Jambi.—(*Dare, &c.*)

Sungumnere.—A large division of the Aurungabad province, situated principally between the nineteenth and twentieth degrees of north latitude. This is a hilly, but fertile and productive country, and contains the sources of the Godavery and many of its contributary streams. In 1803, it was supposed to yield the reigning Peshwa a revenue of ten lacks of rupees. The principal towns are Sungumnere, Nassuck, Trimbuck, and Beylahpoor. The first stands in lat. 19° 21′ N., lon. 74° 24′ E., seventy-three N.N.E. from Poona.

Sungur.—A town in Afghanistan, division of Upper Sinde, situated twenty-three miles to the west of the Indus; lat. 30° 50′ N., lon. 69° 58′ E.

Sunjeet.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, fifteen miles from Rampoora, which in 1820 belonged to Ghuffoor Khan, and contained about 500 houses; lat. 24° 18′ N., lon. 75° 23′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sunkra (*Sancara*).—A subdivision of the Sinde principality, in the province of Mooltan, situated at the south-western extremity, where it is separated by the Goonee river, here named the Loonee (or saline) from the province of Cutch. It is thinly inhabited and presents little cultivation, the soil consisting either of a barren sand or salt morass. It does not contain any towns of note.

Surabaya.—A considerable town, the capital of a district, in Java, situated 540 miles east from Batavia; lat. 7°13′S., lon. 112° 49′ E. This place stands on a fine river, which permits vessels of considerable burthen to ascend to the town. Its mouth is defended by Fort Calamaes, a circular battery, mounting forty guns, placed on a rising spot on the east side of the river, which has a commanding sweep across the straits of Madura, where it is narrowest, being opposite to the south-west end of that island.

According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the division of Surabaya contained 154,512 inhabitants, of which number 2,047 were Chinese, within an area of 1,218 square miles. At that period the town of Surabhaya contained 24,574 persons.—(*Thorn, Raffles, &c.*)

SURACARTA *(Suryacarta)*. — See SOLO.

SURAJEGUR *(Suryaghar)*.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, sixty-eight miles E.S.E. from Patna; lat. 24° 14′ N., lon. 86° 15′ E.

SURAJEPOOR *(Surjapura)*. — A town in the province of Allahabad, fourteen miles east from Korah; lat. 26° 10′ N., lon. 80° 30′ E. This is a place of considerable length but small breadth, stretching along the side of the Ganges. A considerable proportion of the houses have two stories, built partly of brick and partly of mud, but it is thinly populated and also exhibits other indications of decline.—*(Fullarton, &c.)*

SURAT *(Surashtra)*. — A British district in the province of Gujerat, situated at the south-western extremity, between the twentieth and twenty-second degrees of north latitude. It consists principally of tracts of country acquired at different periods from the native powers, principally the Peshwa and Guicowar, and still much intermixed with the territories of the latter. It presents a much greater variety of surface than the neighbouring district of Broach. The eastern pergunnahs belong to the hilly and jungly country that reaches to the ghauts; those in the south partake of the same character; the rest is flat, and in many parts fertile; but a large proportion is still covered with baboul bushes and wild date-trees. Nearly one-third of the district is waste. The eastern quarter is inhabited by Dhoobias, in many respects resembling Bheels, except that they are remarkable for their peaceable, inoffensive dispositions, a sufficient contrast. The other inhabitants, excluding those of the city, are Koombies and Coolies, Maustaun or Batailas (a caste of Brahmins), with some Parsees, Borahs and Rajpoots.

There are no Grassias or Mewassies in the district, and only one or two Bheel chiefs, nominally dependent on Rajpeepla. The Rajpoot chiefs (of Mandavie, Banda, and Dhurrumpoor) occupy portions of the jungle to the east of this zillah, but the nabob of Surat is the only dignitary possessing independent authority within its limits, and this only with reference to his own dependants. In 1821 he had 1,600 begas of land, about 300 ryots, 200 armed attendants, and 150 servants and slaves. The system of revenue collection in Surat is almost entirely ryotwar, but this improvement has been only recently introduced. In 1821 the cultivators appeared ill-clothed and lodged, and much depressed in spirit; indeed the pergunnah of Chowrassy, contiguous to the populous city of Surat, like the Sunderbunds in Bengal, might be quoted as the worst cultivated tract in the district, notwithstanding the great market in its immediate vicinity. In 1820-21 the jumma of the land revenue amounted to 15,05,273 rupees.

With respect to the internal police, until lately the Surat district was so much intersected by the territories of other states and petty jaghiredars that the jurisdiction of the magistrate was much interrupted, many previous ceremonies and negociations being necessary before he could arrest a thief or recover stolen property. Formerly also a class of gang robbers, enlisted by Grassias having claims on the revenue of certain lands, infested the district. These ruffians were generally headed by some desperate Jemadar, renowned for his cruelties and exactions, who while collecting dues for his master, extorted double the amount for himself. These and other grievances attending an unsettled government have since been remedied, but still the district does not exhibit that appearance of prosperity that from its long tranquillity might have been expected. Marine and river piracy is still carried on to a great extent in the Surat jurisdiction, owing to the easy communication held by vessels at the mouth of that river with banks, one of which is only partially subject to the British laws. In consequence of this practice, al-

though hardly any cotton is grown to the south of Surat, every village between that city and Bulsaur is commonly full of that commodity, thrown over board by the native captains and crews, under the slightest plea of bad weather, and picked up by their relations and partners from the neighbouring villages along the shore; who frequently also by a concerted plan, come off and plunder the vessel entirely. The booty is subsequently distributed in regular shares among the different villages, which belong principally to Bulloo Meah of Sacheen, whose income would be much deteriorated were these practices suppressed.—(*Elphinstone, Bourcheir, Prendergast, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Surat.—A large and populous town, situated on the south bank of the Tuptee river, about twenty miles above its junction with the sea, and the modern capital of the Gujerat province; lat. 21° 11′ N., lon. 73° 7′ E. This is a large and ugly city, with narrow winding streets, high houses of timber-frames filled up with bricks, the upper stories projecting over each other. The wall is entire, and in good repair, with semi-circular bastions. Its destruction has been frequently contemplated, to throw the town open; but the feelings of security which the natives derive from such a rampart, and the facilities it affords for collecting the town duties, have hitherto preponderated in favour of its preservation. The circuit of Surat is about six miles in a semicircle, of which the Tuptee is the chord. Near the centre of this chord, and washed by the river, stands a small castle, with round bastions, glacis, and covered way, in which a few sepoys and European artillery are stationed, and which is distinguished by the singularity of two flagstaves, on one of which a union-jack is displayed, on the other a plain red flag, the ancient ensign of the Delhi emperors. In the neighbourhood of this fort are most of the European houses, of a good size, and surrounded by extensive compounds, but not well contrived to exclude the heat. Without the walls is a French factory, containing some handsome and convenient apartments, but now (1824) quite deserted by their proper owners, and occupied by different English officers. It had been restored to the French after the conclusion of the peace in 1815, and a governor and several functionaries came to take possession; but the diseases of the climate soon made such a havock among them, that the few survivors were glad to return to the isle of Bourbon, whence no substitutes arrived to fill up the vacancy. At this station there is a neat and convenient church, and a very picturesque and extensive burial-ground, full of large but ruinous tombs of the former servants of the East-India Company, some of them from 120 to 180 years old.

The most remarkable institution in Surat is the Banyan hospital, of which, however, we have no description more recent than 1780. It then consisted of a large piece of ground enclosed by high walls, and subdivided into several courts or wards for the accommodation of animals. In sickness they were attended with the greatest care, and here found what many a human being wanted and wants, a peaceful asylum for the infirmities of old age. When an animal broke a limb or was otherwise disabled, his owner brought him to this hospital, where he was received without regard to the caste or nation of his master. In 1772 this hospital contained horses, mules, oxen, sheep, goats, monkies, poultry, pigeons, and a variety of birds; also an aged tortoise, which was known to have been there seventy-five years. The most extraordinary ward was that appropriated for rats, mice, bugs, and other noxious vermin, for whom suitable food was provided.

This is one of the most ancient cities of Hindostan, being mentioned in the Ramayuna, a Sanscrit poem of great antiquity. After the discovery of the passage to the East by the Cape of Good Hope, it was much

frequented by vessels belonging to European nations, who exported from hence pearls, diamonds, ambergris, civet, musk, gold, silks and cottons of every description, spices, fragrant woods, indigo, saltpetre, and other objects of Indian traffic. From hence also a great number of pilgrims embarked for Arabia, on which account Surat was considered by the Mahomedans of Hindostan as one of the gates of Mecca. In A.D. 1612 Captain Best received permission to settle an English factory at Surat, where he left ten persons, with a stock of £4,000, to purchase goods. The Dutch did not visit Surat until 1617. The French carried on a considerable but losing trade with Surat during the early years of the eighteenth century; and having contracted debts to the natives, deserted it altogether. Some time afterwards in 1714 a company was formed at St. Maloes, which despatched ships to the East-Indies, but these were seized and sequestered at Surat, to liquidate the debts of the former adventurers, with which the St. Maloes association had not the least concern.

In latter times the trade of Surat has much declined, and at present consists almost wholly of cotton wool, which is exported in large boats to Bombay, and all the manufactured goods are undersold by the British except kincobs and shawls, for which there is little demand. A great deterioration has consequently taken place in the circumstances of the native merchants, many of whom have been obliged to sell their personal goods and chattels to procure immediate subsistence. In 1824 the only prosperous persons were the Borahs and Parsees, the last of whom are the proprietors of half the houses, and seem to thrive where nobody else (the Borahs always excepted) can glean a scanty maintenance.

In January 1664 the Maharatta army under Sevajee made a sudden attack on this city, when the Mogul governor shut himself up in the castle, and the inhabitants fled to the adjacent country. In this emergency Sir George Oxenden, the chief, and the rest of the Company's servants shut themselves up in the factory with the Company's property, valued at £80,000, and having fortified it as well as the shortness of the time would permit, called in the ships' crews to assist in the defence. When attacked they made so brave and vigorous a resistance, that they not only preserved the factory but the greatest part of the town from destruction; for which, after the retreat of the enemy, they were thanked by the Mogul commander. Surat was attacked and partially pillaged by the Maharattas in 1670, and afterwards in 1702, and again in 1707; but having no cannon, and very few firearms, they were unable to make any progress.

Moyen ud Deen, the ancestor of the present nabob of Surat, was an adventurer who in 1748 possessed himself of Surat castle. His successors were, in 1763, Cuttub ud Deen; in 1792, Nizam ud Deen; and in 1800, Nassir ud Deen, all invested by the East-India Company. The existing system of internal government having been found inadequate to the protection of the persons and property of the inhabitants, a treaty was concluded in 1800 with Nassir ud Deen, the new nabob, by which he agreed that the management of the city and district of Surat, and the administration of civil and criminal justice, should be exclusively vested in the British government. The latter engaged to pay to the nabob one-fifth of the surplus revenue, after deducting all charges; the residue to be at the disposal of the British government. By a subsequent treaty in 1803 the Maharattas were compelled to abandon all their vexatious claims on Surat, which has ever since remained under the Bombay presidency, and been governed by the British regulations modified by peculiar local customs and circumstances. Nassir ud Deen, the nabob of Surat, died in 1821, aged seventy-one years, leaving a son named Ufzul ud Deen.

With respect to the population of

Surat a considerable uncertainty still remains. In 1798 Mr. Seton estimated that the population of this city was 800,000 persons; in 1808 Mr. Crow, the judge and magistrate, found only 28,871 houses in the town and suburbs; and Mr. Romer, in 1818, reckoned the number of houses at 31,439; which last number, allowing five individuals to a house, would give a total population of only 157,195 persons. It is, however, the prevailing opinion that the population of Surat has much decreased within the last half century. The English society is uncommonly numerous here, as Surat is the headquarters not only of a considerable military force, but of a collector, a board of customs, a circuit, and of a sudder adawlut for the whole presidency of Bombay, which, for the greater convenience of the people, on account of its central position, Mr. Elphinstone transferred hither. Travelling distance from Bombay, 177 miles; from Poona, 243; from Oojein, 309; from Delhi, 756; and from Calcutta by Nagpoor, 1238 miles: —(*Bishop Heber, Bourchier, Prendergast, Parliamentary Reports, Elphinstone, Bruce, &c.*)

Suraulea.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Dewass, which in 1820 contained about 300 houses, and belonged to the raja of Dewass.

Suriago.—A small fort and town belonging to the Spaniards, situated at the northern extremity of Magindanao, on the banks of a river flowing from an inland lake. The roadstead here is good during both monsoons; but in the offing, where the passage is narrow, the tides are said to run with great strength.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Surkhanda.—A peak, part of the ridge in Northern Hindostan that separates the Jumna and Ganges, and overlooks the Deyrah Doon: lat. 30° 24′ N., lon. 78° 16′ E.

Surmalee Stockade.—A stockade in Northern Hindostan, dominions of Nepaul, four miles east of the Goggra river; lat. 29° 22′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E.

Surout.—A large village in the province of Agra, surrounded by a stone wall, and held in jaghire from the Jeypoor raja by a relation of the family; lat. 26° 51′ N., lon. 77° E.

Surrool.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Moorshedabad, fifty-three miles S.W. by S. from Moorshedabad; lat. 23° 39′ N., lon. 87° 42′ E. This is a place of some traffic, and the head-quarters of the commercial resident for the Soonamookee division.

Sursee.—A small town in the province of Malwa, near to Kairwass, which in 1820 contained 200 houses, and belonged to Guffoor Khan.

Susuhunan.—See Solo or Suryacarta in Java.

Susung.—A small subdivision of the Silhet district, in the province of Bengal, where duties are levied on the cotton brought for sale by the Garrows. In 1815 (including those of Sherpoor) they were farmed for 4,625 rupees.—(*Sisson, &c.*)

Sutalury.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Backergunge, 168 miles east from Calcutta; lat. 22° 38′ N., lon. 90° 10′ E.

Sutchana.—A town in the province of Gujerat, belonging to the jam of Noanagur, and situated to the east of that city. An extensive fishery is carried on along this part of the gulf of Cutch, from whence the fish, when dried, are transported to the interior. The pearl-oyster is also found here, and is made a source of revenue.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Sutuleje River (*Satradu, with a hundred channels or bellies*).—The fifth river of the Punjab, and the Hyphasis of Alexander's historians. Although not yet established by ocular inspection, there is now little doubt that the Sutuleje issues from lake Rawan's

Hrad and lake Manasarovara, which probably communicate at certain seasons. According to Captain Hearsay's map the source is about lat. 31° 46′ N., lon. 80° 43′ E., from whence to Roper in lat. 30° 58′ N., lon. 80° 43′ E., a distance of above 400 miles, until 1818 little was known, and the existence of a western branch of this great river, (the Spiti or Li, which rises in Lahdack) was not even suspected.

The upper part of its course from Rawan's Hrad to the town of Shipké lies within the Chinese territories. At Shipké lat. 31° 49′ N., lon. 78° 44′ E., the height of the bed of the Sutuleje is 9,267 feet above the level of the sea; its breadth sixty-seven feet, and its depth six feet. Below Shipké it is obstructed by rocks, and at a short distance above Dabling there is a small fall. The declension from Poaree to Wongtoo is 1,337 feet, or fifty-one feet per mile, thence to Koteghur fifty-nine feet per mile, and to Soonee twenty feet per mile. The district of Kunawur is the middle valley of the Sutuleje; the lower valley begins where the river bursts from the Himalaya. The mean height of the Sutuleje near its confluence with the Baspa is 6,300 feet. In the lower valley the banks of the Sutuleje at an elevation of 2,000 feet above the level of the sea consist of limestone. At Jaurè, on the north bank, springs rising to the temperature of 130° Fahrenheit are found, issuing only two or three feet from the channel of the river, the waters of which have a strong sulphurous smell. The fall of the Sutuleje from Shipké to Rampoor is, with little exception, nearly uniform, and about sixty feet in the mile; from thence to Soonee the average fall is twenty-four feet, and from Soonee to Roper, where it enters the plain, eleven feet per mile. If twenty-four feet fall per mile be allowed in the upper part of its course above Shipké, the elevation of its source at or near Rawan's Hrad will be between 14,000 and 15,000 feet above the level of the sea.

Much knowledge has been gained within the last ten years of the course of this stream, which may now be considered one of the largest and most important rivers of India. The source of the western or Spiti branch (which at their junction is as large as the eastern branch) rising somewhere in Lahdack, still remains unknown, but the length of the course of the eastern, from Rawan's Hrad to its confluence with the Beyah, may be estimated at 500 miles; thence to its junction with the Indus 400 miles; to which 500 more being added for its progress to the ocean, will give a total journey of 1,400 miles. This hundred-bellied stream by the lower mountaineers is called Satadru; by the natives of Kunawur (Khanawer) Zagti; and by the Tartars, Lamjing Kanpa; Kanpa signifying a river in general, as does also Sanpoo and Maksang.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, Messrs. Gerards, Jas. Fraser Moorcroft, Colebrooke, Rennell, &c.*)

Sutuleje and Jumna Province.—A large tract of country in Northern Hindostan, which until the Gorkha war of 1815 remained so wholly unexplored, that even the names of the petty states within its limits was a matter of conjecture. To the north it is separated from what has been called Little Tibet, by the Himalaya mountains; on the south it adjoins the province of Delhi; to the east it is bounded in its whole extent by the course of the river Jumna; and on the west by that of the Sutuleje, so that its limits have the advantage of being singularly well defined. In length it may be estimated at ninety miles, by sixty miles the average breadth, equal to an area of 5,400 square miles. The political divisions of this territory before its conquest by the Gorkhas, and to which indeed, by the restoration of the native chiefs it has nearly returned were the following, *viz.* 1st. Four considerable principalities Cahlore, Hindoor, Sirmore, and Bussaher. 2ndly. Twelve petty states called the Barra Thakooria or twelve lordships, *viz.* Keon-

thul, Bughaut, Baghul, Kothaur, Koomharsain, Bhujee, Mahlogh, Dhamee, Keearee, Khoonkhaur, Mungul, and Kotee. 3rdly. Fourteen petty chiefships, *viz.* Joobul, Koteghur, Bulsun, Kunartoo, Kurrungtoo, Detailoo, Theoka, Poondur, Keoond, Ootraj, Suranee, Sangree, Burrowlee, and Durkotee.

It is a remarkable circumstance in the history of these countries, that while the common people, as far as their histories and traditions extend, appear to have been all aboriginal, their rulers are, with few exceptions, of foreign extraction, being sprung from ancestors who had emigrated from the eastward and southward, (mostly in performance of pilgrimage to Jowala Mookhee, a place of great sanctity in the Kangra principality) and had found the natives of the hills in such a state of ignorance and barbarism as had at once invited and facilitated their subjugation. At an early period (about A.D. 816) this country appears to have possessed as many independent states as it contained villages; but subsequently several more powerful chiefships were founded by emigrants from the south. The intervening time until the Gorkha invasion in 1803, was occupied by intestine warfare, which exasperated and disunited the communities and paved the way for a foreign yoke. Occasionally the name of the Delhi emperor was used to extort money; but Adeina Beg Khan, the soubahdar of Lahore, appears to have been the only imperial commander who ever entered the hills between the Sutuleje and Jumna

In 1803 the government of Nepaul detached Ummer Singh Thappa to subdue the more western states of Northern Hindostan, which undertaking he completed between that date and 1813, the whole history of its process exhibiting a most singular want, on the part of the inhabitants, of energy, courage, or activity, and of every other valuable quality usually attributed to a highland people. In this prostrate condition it remained until 1814, when the first war between the British nation and the Gorkhas commenced, but lingered on for some time with but indifferent success; at length, in 1815, Sir David Ochterlony having assumed the chief command, and penetrated the hills, the Gorkhas were dislodged from the fortified heights of Malown, and soon after Ummer Singh, their commander, was forced to capitulate both for himself and son, then blockaded at Jytuk. The result of these decisive measures, combined with the prosperous operations in Kumaon, was the evacuation by the Gorkhas of the entire territory west of the Kali branch of the Goggra.

The British government having in this manner, after no moderate expenditure of blood and treasure, wrested this long agitated country from the Gorkhas, proceeded to lay down a basis for its settlement, founded on the restoration of the exiled or subdued chiefs, in all cases in which their failure to perform the conditions of the proclamation published at the commencement of the war, did not justify a departure from that principle. The general restoration of the princes, however, was judged the most advisable settlement, and with certain exceptions it was carried into execution. These exceptions were the retention of Malown, Subhatoo, and one or two other military posts, the exclusion of the thakoors of Keonthul and Bughat, and of Kurrum Perkhaush the exiled raja of Sirmore, on account of the incurable depravity of his character, in favour of his son; and finally, the separation from that principality of the pergunnahs of Jounsar and Bhawer, lying on the opposite side of the river Tonse.

It became expedient also to exercise a more energetic and direct system of control over the hill states, to prevent the revival of ancient feuds and animosities, which could only be effected by the coercion of a vigorous control, it being impossible to avoid the inconvenience of arbitrating their disputes without the certainty of incurring evils of a more serious de-

scription. It was meant, however, that this control should be political only, and not extend to an interference with the internal management of their affairs. With respect to the *statu quo* of their territories, the period of the Gorkha invasion in 1803 was selected, as in all respects the most convenient, from being of so modern a date as to render evidence easily attainable, while the public declarations of the British government precluded their taking cognizance of claims originating in transactions of an antecedent date. The following are the only lands and military posts occupied by the British on the hills, *viz.* Jounsar, Bhawer, Subhatoo fort and pergunnah, Raeenghur fort and pergunnah, Sindook, and Poondur. The objection to the retaining of territory in the hills were founded on the unprofitable nature of the possessions, and the difficulty of governing such remote and insulated tracts, more especially with regard to the administration of justice; for under the local and peculiar circumstances of the countries in question, it appeared equally inexpedient and impracticable to introduce the general code of Bengal judicial regulations.

Since the conquest of this tract the attention of the British government has been particularly directed to the abolition of the long established custom of compelling the peasantry to act as hill porters; for in this mountainous country the only mode of carriage is on men's shoulders, and it has always been the practice to press men for this purpose. During the war the urgency of affairs admitted of no alternative; but in 1816 a great reduction of the number was effected, and further improvements in the system have since taken place, more especially by securing to them their hire. But in whatever mode their services are required, until some moral change takes place compulsory it must ever be, as the slothful nature of this people will always lead them to prefer indolence and poverty at home to any laborious exertion abroad. In 1815 the total revenues of the countries situated between the Sutuleje and Tonse were estimated at 4,35,769 rupees. The most remarkable creature in the northern tracts is the pheir, an animal of the deer kind, which subsists on the short herbage near the edges of the snow. Its flesh is so coarse, and has so unpleasant a musky smell that the Hindostanies will not touch it, although the Gorkha sepoys and mountaineers eat it with great avidity. It is remarkable that these people will not touch mutton.

On the first of April 1827 Lord Amherst held a durbar at the hill station of Subathoo, which was attended by the ranas of Keonthul, Baghul, Bughat, Kothaur, Koomharsein, Bhujee, Malogh, Damee, Koonyar, Balma, Beja, Ootraje, and Kothtaee, who brought nuzzers of birds, hill-ponies, and other articles, the peculiar productions of their respective territories, and received in return khelauts, suited to their rank and condition.—(*Lieut. Ross, Sir David Ochterlony, Public MS. Documents, Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

Swally (*Sivalaya, the abode of Siva*).—A town in the province of Gujerat, and harbour of the Surat shipping, situated at the mouth of the Tuptee river, twenty miles west from that city; lat. 21° 6′ N., lon. 72° 50′ E.

Syadree Mountains.—A range of mountains in the province of Aurungabad, among the Western Ghauts, the general elevation of which approaches 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, but particular ones rise much higher. Those on which the hill-forts of Logur, Issapoor, Kooaree, and Singhur stand (or rather stood), attain the height of 4,000 feet.—(*Capt. H. D. Robertson, &c.*)

Sydah.—A large town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to Holcar, and was nearly in ruins.

Sylah.—A fortified town in the Gujerat peninsula, possessed by a Rajpoot chief, formerly tributary to

the Guicowar; lat. 22° 23′ N., lon. 71° 37′ E. It occupies more ground than Wankaneer, but is not so strong a place.

Sylaur River.—See Tinnevelly District.

Syriam.—A town in the Burmese empire and province of Pegu, a few miles S.E. of Rangoon; lat. 16°49′ N., lon. 96° 17′ E. In the year 1744 the British factory at this place was destroyed by the contending parties, during the wars of the Birmans and Peguers, which were carried on with the most savage ferocity.

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Tablas Isle.—One of the Philippines, situated due south of Luzon, and of a very irregular shape. In length it may be estimated at thirty miles, by three the average breadth.

Taclagur *(or Taclacote)*.—A town in Northern Hindostan, situated on the west side of the Goggra river (here named the Karanali); lat. 30° 24′ N., lon. 81° 5′ E., twenty-five miles south from Lake Manasarovara. Jemlah to the north is bounded by a ridge of snowy mountains, thence named Hima, by which it is separated from the country of the Taklakhar Bhooteas, now subject to China. Taclagur is a dependency on Gurdon, a Chinese station, which although incorporated with that empire, geographically belongs to Hindostan, being decidedly to the south of the highest ridge of the Himalaya. It is a permanent mart for wax and borax, and a fair is also held here during the months of October and November, when the vicinity exhibits a great display of tents. The principal articles brought from Tartary are wool, woollen cloths, and gold, to which tea may be added. The grain raised in this vicinity, named awajou, is carried north to the neighbourhood of Lake Rawan's Hrad, where it is given to the horses during the rigorous season; and as it thrives in a rigorous climate, it might perhaps be with advantage naturalized in Britain. At one day's journey north of Taclacote the soil is cultivated by a very scanty population, yet the produce does not equal the consumption. Beyond this limit tribes of migratory horsemen are found, named Dopka, who are dwellers in tents. Taclacote, by an approximated estimate, is about 14,500 feet above the level of the sea.—(*Webb, Moorcroft, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Tagal.—A town and district in the island of Java, the first eighty-five miles west from Samarang; lat. 6° 56′ S., lon. 109° 12′ E. The country about this place is remarkably productive; and further east it is the rice granary, not only for Batavia, but for general exportation. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the district of Tagal contained 178,415 inhabitants, of which number 2,004 were Chinese; area of the surface, 1,297 square miles. The town is pleasingly situated on a broad river, has a church and small fort, and presents a neat appearance. At this place, and most others further east, a mounted police is maintained by the native superintendents, which in the larger towns is under the control of European officers.—(*Thorn, Raffles, &c.*)

Tagolanda.—A small island about twenty miles in circumference, lying off the north-eastern extremity of Celebes; lat. 2° 10′ N., lon. 125° 5′ E. This island is populous, and plentifully supplied with provisions, three chopping-knives being the price of a bullock, and one, of a thousand coco-nuts. The Dutch formerly kept a few soldiers here, and also a schoolmaster, to convert the inhabitants, who are described as pork-eating pagans, a grand distinction among the Malay islands.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Tahej.—This was the capital of Cutch when Abul Fazel wrote in 1582, but no vestiges now remain. From what he says it was probably

situated somewhere to the north-west of Anjar.

Tahmoor.—A town in the province of Oude, sixty miles N. by E. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 42′ N., lon. 81° 4′ E.

Tahrah.—A town and fortress in the province of Cutch, situated about thirty miles S.E. from Luckput Bunder, on the road from that place to Mandavie. The fort is an irregular building, defended by round towers, flanked by a large tank on each side; the town on the south and the suburbs on the west. The inhabitants are numerous, and principally Hindoos.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

Taimboorny.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, ninety-seven miles E.S.E. from Poona; lat. 18° N., lon. 75° 23′ E.

Taiveram.—A town in the Madura and Dindigul district, 117 miles N. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 54′ N., lon. 77° 25′ E.

Tajpoor.—A town in the province of Malwa, eight miles from Oojein, which in 1820 belonged to Sindia and contained about 500 houses.

Tala.—A small town in the province of Arracan thirty-seven miles S.E. from the capital of the same name.

Talak.—A village in Arracan, situated on the right bank of a stream of clear water, running over a pebbly bottom, and coming from the hills to the north-east, winding round them in a semicircular direction; lat. 20° 20′ N., lon. 93° 33′ E.; twenty-eight miles S. by E. from the town of Arracan. This village in 1827 consisted of about 100 huts, chiefly occupied by Burmese, who had established a mart and bazar, to which the people from the eastern side of the Arracan hills had begun to resort, bringing down cotton thread, khut, bees'-wax, elephants'-teeth, and Burmese silk garments, which they barter for betel-nut, tobacco, gnapee, balachang, and British piece-goods. To the north-east of this village and about four miles from the bank of the river, extends a chain of high mountains, the most conspicuous of which is the Phoongee Dong, over which leads the pass by which the Burmese originally invaded Arracan, and through which a great part of their army retreated in 1825. The height of the usual halting place has been estimated at 1,700 feet.

Above Talak is Aeng, but the stream is so shallow below that place for about five miles, that boats cannot reach it except at spring tides. In 1827 several large Mugh boats were found at Aeng, which had come from Ramree with cargoes of betel-nut and piece-goods, whilst from Sillahmew on the Irawady a trader with fifty bullocks had just arrived by land. Wild elephants are so numerous in this vicinity as to interrupt the cultivation, which is in consequence mostly confined to the banks of the Talak river, where tobacco and cotton thrive, ginger is abundant, and pepper of a good quality grows wild.

The face of the country in this portion of Arracan may be described as regularly irregular, consisting of one winding rivulet or creek leading to another, in interminable succession, the banks of which are covered with close jungle of the mangrove, soondry, jarool, and gurjun, intermixed with canes and bamboos. The rivers run between extensive chains of low hills, backed by loftier mountains, over which bamboo jungle is universally spread. The redundant vegetation renders the country generally unhealthy, but both Talak and Aeng standing on elevated positions, on the banks of clear running streams admit of being kept perfectly dry, even during the monsoon, which must no doubt render them comparatively salubrious.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Talcher.—A hill estate in the province of Cuttack, on which anthracite or blind-coal was discovered in 1827.

TALEROO.—A miserable village in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Boondee, about nine miles S.S.E. from the city of Boondee, It is remarkable for a bridge or causeway of stone, that here traverses the rocky bed of the Taleroo nullah. The most direct road from Kotah to Boondee passes through this place.

TALGONG.—A town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles N.N.E. from Ditteah; lat. 25° 55′ N., lon. 78° 42′ E.

TALL.—A town in the province of Malwa, belonging to Ghuffoor Khan, which in 1820 contained 641 houses; lat. 23° 40′ N., lon. 75° 26′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah of forty-two villages, which then yielded a revenue of 5,328 rupees. The surrounding country is flourishing, cultivation being much encouraged by the proprietor, himself an old depredator.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

TALLAIN.—A small town in the province of Malwa, eleven miles travelling distance from Shujawulpoor, which in 1820 contained about 200 houses, and belonged to Holkar.

TALLIMALLY.—A small town with the remains of a fort, situated in the wild mountainous country on the verge of the table-land of Mysore, but within the limits of the Coimbatoor province, at the head of the Guzzelhutty pass, about sixty-one miles S. by E. from the city of Mysore. There is here a bungalow provided by government for the accommodation of travellers.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TALNERE (*Thalnir*). — A fort in the province of Candeish, situated on the north bank, and commanding a ford over the river Tuptee, ninety-three miles west from Boorhanpoor; lat. 21° 13′ N., lon. 75° E. By Abul Fazel it is noticed as the capital of Adil Shah, the first independent sovereign of Candeish, A.D. 1406. After the dissolution of the Mogul empire it came early into the possession of the Maharattas, and was one of the cessions made to the British by the Holcar family, at the treaty of Mundessor; but when summoned by Sir Thomas Hislop in 1818, the commandant and garrison resisted. A gate was then blown up, and the commandant came out by the wicket and surrendered himself; but when some British officers and soldiers entered by the same passage, they were treacherously attacked by the Arab garrison, and several of them killed and wounded. The place was afterwards stormed and the whole of the garrison put to the sword, and the commandant hanged on one of the bastions as a punishment for his rebellion in the first instance, and the subsequent (with or without his knowledge) treachery of the garrison in the second.

On one side Talnere rises out of the Tuptee, and the three other sides are surrounded by a hollow way varying in width from 100 to 150 yards. The walls rise to the height of sixty feet above this hollow, and the interior of the fort has the same elevation. The only entrance is on the eastern side, and is secured by five successive gates communicating by intricate traverses, whose enclosures rise to the height of the main wall. The ground immediately surrounding the hollow way is cut into deep ravines, which run into it, and the intermediate parts are crowned with clusters of houses that form the town of Talnere, distant from the fort about 350 yards. The surrounding country is flat, but separated from the town by other ravines branching out in various directions.—(*Sir T. Hislop, Blacker, Prinsep, &c.*)

TALOUR.—A small town in the province of Agra, twenty-three miles E. from Ditteah; lat. 25° 41′ N., lon. 78° 45′ E.

TAMBERACHERRY.—A small inland town in the province of Malabar. twenty miles N.E. from Calicut; lat. 11° 26′ N., lon. 76° E. From the woods around this place some teak and viti trees are annually procured.

TAMBEHKAN.—A small town in

Northern Hindostan, situated in the narrow part of the Nepaul valley, inhabited by mountain Hindoos. Near to it is a productive copper mine; lat. 27° 35′ N., lon. 84° 46′ E.

TAMBARAPURNI RIVER.—See TINNAVELLY DISTRICT.

TAMLINGTAR.—A town in the kingdom of Nepaul, situated between the Arun and Soreya, which are here about three miles distant from each other; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 86° 52′ E.; 110 miles N.N.W. from Purneah. It is the largest place in the Chayenpoor district, and according to native accounts contains about 6,000 inhabitants. The plain in which it stands is about twenty miles from north to south, and six from east to west. It is bounded on the west by the Arun, but is not clear of jungle.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

TAMUL *(or Tamil)*.—This is the proper national appellation of the Sudras of the eastern side of the south of India; and the pracrit bhasham, or vulgar dialect of the country, is there called the language of the Tamuls. It is principally spoken in the tract of country south of Telingana to Cape Comorin, and from the coast of Coromandel to the great range of hills, including the greater part of Barramahal, Salem, and the country now called Coimbatoor, along which line it is bounded on the west by the province of Malabar. Both language and people are by those of Carnata called Arabi and Tigular, and the Tamul Brahmins designated Dravida Brahmins. By Europeans this language is miscalled Malabar. The Tamul land is the same as Dravida, beginning on the southern bank of the Krishna, and occupying the eastern half of the southern extremity of the Indian triangle to Cape Comorin. There never was any proper geographical division named Tamul, the term having reference to the diffusion of the language.—(*Wilks, F. Buchanan, Warren, &c.*)

TANAHUNG.—A small district in Northern Hindostan, intersected by many streams, and subject to the Nepaulese. Its chief was formerly one of the twenty-four rajas, and while independent his country consisted of two portions; one of the hills that surround Gorkha on the west and south, and the other in the valley of the Rapty, which is adjacent to the southern portion of that on the hills, and was inhabited by the common Hindoos of Mithila and Tirhoot. It contains the pergunnahs of Chetan, Belan and Sengjihayat, the two first of which are tolerably cultivated. The mountains of Tanahung were inhabited by the same race as Palpa, and nearly in the same proportions. Its southern division contained three towns, Yogemara, Upadrang, and Kayilas, the first of which is said to be large, and a military station of some importance.

No chief resisted with such gallantry and effect the rising power of Prithi Narrain of Gorkha, who in 1769, having completed the conquest of Nepaul proper, attacked the petty chiefs west of the Trisoolgunga, usually called the twenty-four rajas. For some time he had rapid success, but being defeated in a decisive battle, he was compelled to relinquish his conquests, nor was any attempt made to extend the dominions of Gorkha to the west, until the Palpa raja was gained. On this event the overthrow of Tanahung took place, but the raja made his escape to the British district of Sarun, where his family still retain in security a small remnant of their former possessions. The Tanahung family, as well as the Palpa branch, is very generally admitted to be descended of the Chitore, and to be one of the highest and purest tribes on the hills east of the Cali.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

TANAKEKE ISLE.—A small island about twelve miles in circumference, surrounded by a cluster of smaller ones, and situated off the south-western extremity of Celebes; lat, 5° 30′ N., lon. 119° 10′ E. This island was formerly given up by the Dutch to

the Malays in their service. Many of the smaller isles are uninhabited, and others peopled by the Buggesses. —(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

TANDAH *(or Tangra).*—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, adjacent to the ruins of ancient Gour; lat. 24° 49′ N., lon. 88° 15′ E. In A.D. 1564 Soliman Shah, one of the Bengal sovereigns of the Shere Shah dynasty, made this place his capital, esteeming its situation more healthy than that of Gour. In 1660 Sultan Shuja was defeated near Tanda, by Meer Jumla, Aurengzebe's general. In 1819 there was scarcely a trace remaining of the ancient city, even the rampart having disappeared, and owing to the surrounding swamps and stagnant water, its site has never been considered healthy by Europeans.—(*F. Buchanan, Stewart, Rennell, Fullarton, &c.*)

TANETE.—A town and small principality in the island of Celebes, situated about half way between Fort Rotterdam and the bay of Sorian; lat. 4° 14′ S., lon. 119° 35′ E. In A.D. 1775 this petty state was tributary to the Dutch, and governed by a female.—(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

TANJORE.—A district in the southern Carnatic, extending along the seacoast, and situated principally between the tenth and eleventh degrees of north latitude. To the north it has the district of Chingleput, on the south that of Madura, to the east it has the bay of Bengal, and on the west Trichinopoly and Madura.

This little principality is entitled to the second rank among all the provinces of Hindostan, for agricultural produce and valued rent, the first being due to the district of Burdwan in Bengal. For the purposes of irrigation prodigious mounds have been raised at Coclady, to prevent the waters of the Cavery from rejoining those of the Coleroon, after they have separated near Trichinopoly. From the southern branch of the river canals are conducted in all directions, which, by means of embankments and reservoirs, are diverted into every field, and fertilize a tract of country from Devicotta to Calymere point, which would otherwise remain barren sand. In the immediate vicinity of the city of Tanjore, and along the line from thence to Trichinopoly, the tract of alluvial land subject to periodical inundation, is confined generally to a space of a few miles on either bank of the superior river; but after passing the first of the branches, that strike off to form the great delta of the Cavery about twenty miles to the eastward of the capital, the whole face of the country presents one flat sheet of rice cultivation, interspersed with innumerable groupes of trees and hamlets, being nearly a counterpart to the general surface of Bengal proper.

From a report on the affairs of Tanjore in 1807, it appears to have contained 5,873 towns. The Mahomedans having never actually occupied this territory, or effected any permanent establishment in it, the Hindoo religion has been preserved in considerable splendour, and the ancient places of worship, with their vast endowments, remain untouched. In almost every village there is a pagoda, with a lofty gateway of massive, but not elegant architecture, where a great many Brahmins are maintained either by the revenues formerly attached to them, or by an allowance from government. On all the great roads leading to these sacred places are choultries, built for the accommodation of pilgrims. The Brahmins are here the chief landholders, and perform almost every office of husbandry except holding the plough. In 1816, according to Sir Thomas Munro's estimate, the district of Tanjore contained 6,011 villages; and in 1822, according to the returns of the collector, 903,353 inhabitants. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 1,086,641 star pagodas.

Of late this district has been much improved by the formation of excel-

lent roads, which traverse the low country from Tanjore to Nagore on the one side, and on the other to Combooconum and Porto Novo. These roads, or rather elevated causeways, are about twelve or fifteen feet wide, shaded for the most part with rows of Parkinsonia, and from eight to ten feet higher than the level of the adjacent fields. The principal inundation here from the Cavery being at a different season of the year from that at which the periodical rains fall on this part of the Coromandel coast, the roads are not liable to be broken up and rendered impassable at the very time when they are most wanted; the principal ferries also throughout Tanjore are probably on a more efficient footing than those of any other portion of Hindostan.

In the remote times of Hindoo antiquity Tanjore was distinguished geographically by the name of Chola Desa, from whence originated by several corruptions the word Coromandel, and in native manuscripts its chief is still designated the Chola raja. The present race are descended from Eccojee, a Maharatta chief (brother to Sevajee), who in A.D. 1675 conquered the city and province, which have been retained by the same dynasty ever since, the Maharatta being still the proper language of the Tanjore court. The expedition of the British troops into this principality in 1749, was the first warfare in the Carnatic where they were engaged against the forces of a native prince, and it proved unsuccessful as to its main object, the restoration of a deposed raja of Tanjore, who had applied for assistance to the governor of Fort St. David. In 1799 a commutation of subsidy was effected, and the territory of Tanjore transferred to the British jurisdiction. On this event the raja reserved to himself several palaces, the Tranquebar tribute of 2,000 chuckrums, a clear allowance of a lack of rupees annually, and one-fifth of the surplus revenues, after payment of the civil and military disbursements, which realizes to him twice as much more. As a particular favour he was allowed to retain the two forts of Tanjore, which he keeps in excellent repair, and garrisons with 1,500 men.

Serfajee, the present raja, is the adopted son of Tuljajee, who died in 1786. He was carefully educated under a respectable Danish missionary, Mr. Schwartz, and among christians, yet he continues a staunch adherent to the Brahminical doctrines and superstitions. In other respects he is a man of liberal sentiments, and particularly indulgent to the Danish missionaries who live in his country. While yet an independent prince he protected their schools, which were fostered by his old tutor, Mr. Schwartz, and extended his kindness to the Roman Catholics also, who in 1785 were estimated at 10,000 persons. From the general toleration, even the Brahmins in this district appear to have relaxed a little from the rigour of their tenets, as they have procured a printing-press, which they have dedicated to the glory of their gods. The inevitable effect, however, of the administration being carried on by British functionaries throughout all departments of the province, has been the progressive reduction and ultimate annihilation of the raja's influence within the territories of his ancestors. In 1811 he was gratified with the title of highness instead of excellency, which concession he received with such an excess of joy and exultation as proved that his European education had not eradicated his prejudices. In 1816 the Tranquebar tribute, amounting to 2,000 chuckrums, annually, was transferred to him, and at his own request the arrears, amounting to 19,000 chuckrums, were also made good to him, paid over distinct from his regular annual revenue. On the 6th December 1826 the aggregate amount of claims preferred before the commissioners in England and India for investigating the debts of Amer Singh, formerly raja of Tanjore, amounted to 34,44,875 star pagodas. These debts appear to have been

contracted above thirty years ago, and on investigation will probably, like those of the nabob of Arcot, prove in a large proportion fictitious.

This portion of the Carnatic having never been thoroughly subdued by the Mahomedans, retains, in their ancient perfection, many of the most objectionable Hindoo customs, and amongst others the voluntary immolation of widows on the funeral pile of their husbands. In 1815 it appears, by documents submitted by the judge, that 100 of these sacrifices had taken place subsequent to the establishment of the court at Combooconum, although it had always been the practice of the magistrate to dissuade the infatuated victim from this horrid act of suicide. The custom it appears was not encouraged by natives of influence or education, and it had long been discouraged by the raja of Tanjore; indeed, with the exception of a few necessitous Brahmins, who derive a profit from this cruel rite, it did not appear that its total abolition here would meet with any serious opposition. Considering, however, the force of prejudice, by which the unfortunate victims were actuated, and the misconstruction to which the interposition of the authority of government was liable, the Madras presidency doubted how far the measure of expressly prohibiting it would be effectual, or free from the danger of worse consequences (secret instead of public burnings) than those against which it was meant to provide.—(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Blackburne, Public MS. Documents, Wilks, &c.*)

TANJORE.—The capital of the preceding principality, situated in lat. 10° 42′ N., lon. 79° 11′ E., 182 miles S.S.W. from Madras. This place consists of two parts, the fortified city, and the fort or citadel, built on the same level, and connected with the first by a curtain and narrow passage. The walls are lofty, and built of large stones, and on the corners of the ramparts are cavaliers; the ditch, which is broad and deep, is cut out of the solid rock, and has a well-formed glacis. The city itself is more regularly built, and contains a larger proportion of solid and ornamental edifices, public and private, than any other native town south of the Krishna. The principal streets intersect each other at right angles; the palace (a confused and extensive group of buildings), fronting the southern entrance, and a street extending from thence westward, composed of a double line of pagodas. The fort contains the celebrated pagoda, which is perhaps the finest specimen of the pyramidical temple in Hindostan. Its grand tower is 199 feet high, and, contrary to the usual practice in the south of India, is placed immediately over the image, and not over the principal entrance. It is remarkable also for its greater simplicity of stile, for its more exact approach to the true pyramid, and for the globular termination of its summit, instead of the sarcophagus top usual in the greater part of the Carnatic. Under a stone canopy in the area, and opposite to the door of the sanctuary, is a bull carved from a block of black granite, an excellent example of Hindoo sculpture.

Close by this great temple stands the church of the Christian missionaries, a singular monument of Hindoo toleration. The English mission established here, continues under the superintendance of a Danish clergyman, the successor of Schwartz, and occupies extensive premises in the environs of the city. Although a connexion with their establishment is not without some worldly advantages, their success in the propagation of the christian faith up to 1820, had, on the whole, been inconsiderable. Their converts are said to be in general of good conduct, but remarkable even beyond the other natives of the province, for the indolence of their habits.

The British residency lies to the south of the city, and without the walls; towards the north-west there is an extensive suburb. From one of of the cavaliers on the ramparts there

is a beautiful view of the surrounding country. The great pagoda forms the foreground, then appears the fort, with the raja's palaces and temples, behind which a rich tract is seen covered with rice fields and clumps of trees, and beyond all a lofty chain of mountains. The river Cavery is here at the highest when the periodical rains prevail in Mysore.

In remote ages Tanjore was the great seat of learning in the south of India, whose almanacs were composed by its learned men according to which A.D. 1800, correspond with 1722 of salivahanam, and the year 4901 of the cali yug; which reckoning differs one year in the first era, and seven in the second, from that used in Karnata. The British were repulsed from before Tanjore in A.D. 1749, and it was besieged without success by M. Lally in 1758. Travelling distance from Madras 205 miles; from Seringapatam 237; and from Calcutta 1,235 miles.—(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, F. Buchanan, Rennell, &c.*)

TANJORE.—A town among the mountains in the interior of Java, seventy-two miles travelling distance S.S.E. from Batavia; lat. 6° 45′ S., lon. 107° 10′ E. The surrounding country is pleasant and well cultivated, and here its regent or native superintendent resides. It is situated at nearly equal distances from the two seas.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

TANNA (*Thana*).— A town and fortress on the island of Salsette, which commands the passage, here 200 yards broad, between the island and the mainland; lat. 19° 11′ N., lon. 73° 6′ E; twenty miles N. by E. from Bombay. This is a straggling place, but not very large, has several Portegueze churches and many Christian inhabitants, who are famous for their breed of hogs, and their dexterity at curing bacon.

TANORE.—A town on the sea-coast of the Malabar province, nineteen miles S.S.E. from Calicut; lat. 11° 3′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E. This was formerly a place of considerable note, but is now reduced to the condition of an obscure village.

TANTALAM. — A considerable island in the gulf of Siam, about the eighth degree of north latitude, extending along the east coast of the Malay peninsula, from which it is separated by a very narrow arm of the sea. In length it may be estimated at sixty miles by about twelve the average breadth, and is subject to the Siamese. The name is supposed to be a corruption of the Malay tana, land, and Thaloong a Siamese province lying between Songora and Ligore.

TAPANOOLY.—A settlement originally established by the British, on a small island at the bottom of the bay of Tapanooly in Sumatra, but given up along with the others to the Dutch in 1818; lat. 1° 40′ N., lon. 98° 50′ E. The bay of Tapanooly, with the island of Mansalar, forms one of the finest ports in the world, composed of such a complication of harbours within each other, that a large ship might lie so hid among them, as not to be discovered without a laborious research. This inlet penetrates to the heart of the Battas country, with whom a considerable traffic is carried on, and timber for masts and spars may be procured in various creeks.

The large kima cockle (*chama gigas*) abounds in this gulf, and has been found three feet three inches in its longest diameter, and two feet one inch across. The substance of the shell is in general perfectly white and several inches thick. The roe of this cockle sometimes weighs six pounds, and the fish altogether, when cleared off the shell, from twenty to thirty pounds. One method of taking them in deep water is by thrusting a bamboo between the valves as they lie open, which is made fast by the immediate closure of the shell. In this bay are also found most beautiful corallines and madrepores.

TAPOOL.—A small island in the eastern seas, one of the Sooloo archi-

pelago, situated due south from the large Soolоo. It affords plenty of fresh water and abounds with small cattle, goats, and yams,—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

Tapoor Ghaut.—A remarkable pass through the mountains leading from the district of Salem proper, into the Barramahal, about twenty-eight miles travelling distance N. by W. from the town of Salem.

Taraghur.—This is the fortress of the city of Ajmeer, which lies at the base of the hill on which Taraghur stands. It is nearly two miles in circumference, but from its irregular shape and surface is not capable of containing more than 1,200 men. In most parts it is quite inaccessible, and it has abundance of good water in tanks and cisterns cut into the rock. There are bomb-proofs of vast extent, and store-houses like wells, and with a very little European improvement it might be made a second Gibraltar. It has never, however, been any part of British policy in India to rely on fortresses. Lat. 26° 31′ N., lon. 74° 28′ E.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Taraghur.—A small fort in Northern Hindostan, commanded during the Nepaulese war by Bhagti Thappa, and captured by Sir D. Ochterlony in 1815; lat. 31° 11′ N., lon. 76° 46′ E.

Tareecher.—A town in the province of Agra, nineteen miles E. by S. from Jansi; lat. 25° 25′ N., lon. 78° 49′ E.

Tarhar.—A small subdivision of the Allahabad province, which during the reign of Aurengzebe was formed of sections of land dismembered from the contiguous districts. It lies due south of the city of Allahabad, on the opposite side of the river.

Tarhigang Mountain.—A mountain in Northern Hindostan, ascended by Messrs. Gerards to the prodigious height of 19,411 feet above the level of the sea. The summit, about 22,000 feet high, was only two miles distant from the station they had reached.—See also Pargeul.

Taroli.—A small town with a native fortification in the province of Agra, twenty-six miles E. by N. from Jansi; lat. 25° 32′ N., lon. 78° 57′ E.

Tasrah.—A town and small pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, which in 1817 yielded a revenue to the British government of 92,650 rupees. A licentious class of Mahomedans were found settled here, named Maliks, who it appears were entitled to one third of the crops.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Tassisudon.—The residence of the Deb raja, and modern capital of Bootan; lat. 27° 5′ N., lon. 99° 40′ E.; 106 miles north from the town of Cooch Bahar. It stands in a highly cultivated valley, about three miles in length by one in breadth, intersected by the river Tehintchieu, the banks of which are lined with willows. On the surrounding mountains are some timber trees intermixed with pine and fir, and a great variety of flowering shrubs. The climate generally is described as being remarkably salubrious.

The castle or palace of Tassisudon is situated near the centre of the valley, and is a stone building of a quadrangular form. The walls are thirty feet high, and pierced below with very small windows, apparently more for the purpose of admitting air than light. The citadel is a very lofty building, consisting of seven stories, each from fifteen to twenty feet high. From the centre of these a square piece of masonry rises, which supports a canopy of copper richly gilt, supposed to be over the image of Maha Muni. The Deb raja of Bootan dwells in the citadel on the fourth story from the ground. In the vicinity of Tassisudon there is a long line of sheds, where workmen are employed in forging brazen gods, and various other ornaments dispersed about their religious edifices. There

is here also a considerable manufacture of paper, fabricated from the the bark of a tree named deah, which grows in great abundance near this city, but is not produced in the tract adjacent to Bengal. It is very strong and capable of being woven, when gilt by way of ornament, into the texture of silks and satins.—(*Captain Turner, &c.*)

TATTA (*Tutta*).—A large district in the province of Mooltan, situated between the twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Sinde Proper, on the south by the sea, on the west it has the sea and Baloochistan, and on the east, in modern times, by the main branch of the Indus. Its ancient dimensions and political importance, from the description given by Abul Fazel in 1582, appear to have been much more considerable than in its present depressed condition. Indeed Tatta, since he wrote, has experienced so unceasing a decay, that it is in danger of relapsing to a state of nature.

Although similar in many of their geographical features, the delta of the Indus presents in other respects a remarkable contrast to that of the Ganges. On the west from the sea-coast to the city of Tatta, scarcely any thing is to be seen but an arid, sandy country, covered in different places with the milk-bush, and other shrubs peculiar to sterile lands, almost destitute of fresh water, which must be procured from an immense depth under ground. Here and there low ranges of bare craggy hills are seen, but scarcely a vestige of agriculture or population for many miles from the sea. Between Tatta and Corachie, the modern port of Sinde, are many tombs and ruins, indicative of a former prosperity, very different from the present miserable condition of the province. The walls and other remains of the ancient city of Bambarah are still discernible, but covered with baubool and other wild shrubs, and inhabited only by a few Indian ascetics. In the same tract there is an inland lake of considerable extent, brackish to the taste, but navigable for small boats, which is probably the forsaken bed of some very ancient branch of the Indus, and by which, during the freshes, when the floods are at the highest, the low country is still inundated. As the city of Tatta is approached from the sea, the soil and aspect of the country improve; but continues without trees, and almost destitute of inhabitants. Camels are bred in this quarter, the tender parts of the brush-wood serving them for pasture. From Sinde to Goa the natives of India use the word kaunta (a fork) to signify also borders on the sea-coast, and know the delta of the Indus under the name of Sindhu Kaunta, which approximates to the term preserved in the latin maps of Canthi Sindi.

For the last fifty years Tatta has been under the government of the ameers of Sinde, and subjected to every species of rapine and extortion. In 1809 the city and district of Tatta were said to yield a revenue of 1,45,000 rupees per annum: the division of Sunkra, 80,000; the seaport of Corachie, 1,10,000; and Dharaja, 80,000. The district of Kahralee is asserted to have produced a revenue of six lacks, during the reign of the Calorie dynasty, which in 1809 had declined to 1,90,000 rupees. The land situated between the salt and fresh water branches of the river was then said to yield only 91,000 rupees per annum. The territory contains only one town of note, which is Tatta the capital.

This quarter of Hindostan was invaded by the Mahomedans at a very early period after the promulgation of their religion. The caliph Omar despatched Moghaireh Abul Aas, who, embarking at Bahrein, attacked the western portion of the delta of the Indus; but meeting with unexpected resistance, was defeated and slain. As Omar died in A.D. 641, this expedition must have been undertaken about A.D. 639 or 640. Othman, his successor, attempted an invasion by land; but having sent people to

survey the roads, he was deterred by the unfavourable nature of their report. It does not appear to have been actually subdued by the Emperor Acber until 1590, although long prior to that date inserted in the official list of provinces subject to his government. Since the fall of the Mogul empire it has followed the destiny of Sinde, and still continues under the sway of its semi-barbarous ameers.—(*Smith, Maxfield, Abul Fazel, Drummond, &c.*)

TATTA.—The capital of the preceding district, situated on the banks of the Indus, about 130 miles from the sea, by the course of the river; lat 24° 44′ N., lon. 68° 17′ E. This town stands in a valley formed by a range of low rocky hills, which during the freshes of the river is inundated; but being placed on an eminence apparently composed of ancient ruins, during the height of the floods presents an insular appearance. The streets are very narrow and dirty; but the houses, although irregularly built of mud, chopped straw, and wood, are superior to the low huts commonly seen in native towns. The better sort of houses are built of brick and lime. The old English factory, purchased by the Company in 1751, still remains, and may be reckoned the best house, not only in Tatta, but in the whole province of Sinde. To the southward of the factory, within the town, are the remains of an old fort, which must have been a strong position against assailants ignorant of artillery tactics. In 1809 there was not any military force stationed in the town, which was then governed by a nabob, or deputy from the ameers of Sinde.

Tatta was originally defended by a strong brick wall, with round towers; but now these are a heap of ruins, and the mosques and pagodas that remain exhibit rapid symptoms of decay. In 1809 the circumference of the town was from four to five miles, but the number of inhabitants only 15,000. It was once famous for its commerce and cloth manufactories, besides a considerable traffic in rice, wheat, hides, &c.; but at present the only fabrics manufactured are a few white cloths and coloured loongees, the shops exhibiting a melancholy picture of poverty and depression.

Opposite to Tatta the Indus is in general shoal, on which account trading boats come to off a small village named Begurah, distant five miles south by east, where the deepest water is four fathoms; but for the most part only two, and the channel about one mile in breadth. The boats employed on the Indus are flat-bottomed, square head and stern, low forward, high abaft, and drawing only a few inches of water. Oars are seldom used, the boats being usually pushed along with poles; and when the wind is fair, recourse is also had to sails. From Tatta to Hyderabad there are four routes, two by land and two by water, the shortest of which may be estimated at fifty-three miles. At this place the monsoon prevails with considerable violence between May and October, attended with hard squalls of thunder, lightning, wind, and rain.

The country round Tatta is a rich soil, watered by conduits from the Indus, and partly submerged during the freshes, but susceptible of the highest cultivation. On the hill of Muckalee, a mile to the west of the city, is an amazing collection of tombs and mausoleums, the habitations of the dead much exceeding in number those of the living. The tomb of Mirza Eesau is uncommonly magnificent and well-executed, and is supposed to have been erected about A.D. 1622. It consists of a large, square, stone building, two stories high, having a great dome, supported by many pillars, which, as well as the body of the building, are covered with sentences extracted from the Koran. Some of the inscriptions on the other tombs appear fresh, and quite legible, although engraved above 170 years ago. On the banks of the Indus, seven miles above Tatta, is another hill, covered with white mosques and Mahomedan tombs,

some of considerable size. Near to one of the smallest, which is held in great veneration by the votaries of both religions, is a large bone stuck upright in the earth, about eighteen feet long, one thick, and two broad, which the natives assert was procured from a fish.

Dr. Robertson is of opinion that Tatta is the Pattala of the ancients; but the low and alluvial districts of Sinde have undergone, even recently, such changes that nothing positive can be affirmed on this head. The name may possibly have referred to the city of Brahminabad, now in ruins, but which appears to have been a metropolis in the remote ages of Hindoo antiquity. Mention is made of Tatta so early as 92 of the Hejira, or A.D. 714. The modern city is said to have been founded by Jam Mundel, the fourteenth of the Someah dynasty, A.D. 1485. It was taken and plundered by the Portuguese in 1555, but continued in the sixteenth century populous and commercial, and possessing manufactures of silk, Caramania wool, and cotton. Even so late as 1742, when visited by Nadir Shah, it was a place of considerable trade, since which date its decay has been uninterrupted. It continued, however, the capital of the principality until the present rulers built the fortress of Hyderabad, and transferred thither the seat of government. Travelling distance from Bombay, 741 miles; from Calcutta, 1,602 miles.—(*Smith, Maxfield, Pottinger, Rennell, &c.*)

TATTORA.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, fifty-three miles S.S.E. from the city of Poona; lat. 17° 53′ N., lon. 74° 29′ E.

TAUDICOMBOO.—A neat village in the Carnatic province, and district of Madura, situated on a peninsula formed by the junction of two rivulets, seven miles from the town of Dindigul; lat. 10° 24′ N., lon. 78° 2′ E.

TAUJEPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Purneah, thirty-six miles E. by N. from the town of Purneah; lat. 25° 45′ N., lon. 88° 15′ E.

TAUGGAON (*Tajgrama*).—A town in the province of Bejapoor, fifteen miles north from Merritch; lat. 17° 4′ N., lon. 74° 46′ E. This place was fortified by Purseram Bhow, and in 1792 was considered the capital of his dominions, being then the residence of his family, in whose possession it has continued ever since. In 1820 it was governed by a boy, seven years of age, descended from that fighting Brahmin.

The most remarkable object here is a temple of Gunpati (Ganesa), with a lofty pointed, pyramidical porch of seven stories, its exterior crowded with images, and terminating above in three black pinnacles; the whole after the fashion of the south of India.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TAUNDA.—A town in the province of Oude, situated on the south side of the Goggra river, thirty-five miles S.E. from Fyzabad; lat. 26° 33′ N., lon. 82° 32′ E.

TAUNDA.—A small town in the province of Malwa, division of Rath, situated on the left bank of the Annas river, about fifteen miles west of Jabboah. The surrounding country is covered with jungle; lat. 22° 58′ N., lon. 74° 25′ E.

TAUNDLA.—A town in the province of Malwa, eighty miles west from the city of Oojein; lat. 23° 4′ N., lon. 74° 38′ E.

TAVOY.—The provinces of Tavoy (including Ye) and Tenasserim occupy a narrow strip of land, extending from lat. 10°35′ N. to 15°30′ N., or 340 miles in length, by an average breadth of forty-four miles, giving an area of about 15,000 square miles. They are confined between the sea on the west; the Siamese mountains on the east; on the south by the Pakchan river; and on the north by another small river. These mountains extend in an irregular but continuous line from the river Brahmaputra in Assam to the southern extremity of the Malay peninsula, and have long

been recognized as the boundary line both by the Burmese and Siamese. Some of the loftiest peaks rise to the height of from 4,000 to 5,000 feet; but the general elevation of the ridge is not so great.

Tavoy proper is bounded on the north by the Henza river, twenty-seven miles south of Ye stockade, but the distinct line of separation from Tenasserim on the south has not yet been ascertained. The sea-coast is a labyrinth of creeks, rivers, and low alluvial islands; but at a little distance it is studded with numerous rocky islands and islets, and always navigable. Almost the whole surface of this province is covered with forest trees, jungle, and luxuriant vegetation: yet the climate is considered healthy, and the Karian natives who inhabit these jungles are comparatively robust. The monsoon winds and periodical rains are nearly the same as in Bengal. The soil of Tavoy is excellent, and capable of yielding the finest fruits, vegetables, and grains, but more especially rice (the grand staple), indigo, and tobacco. The other articles of commerce are sapan-wood (the supply of which is inexhaustible), tin, elephants'-teeth, wood oil, birds'-nests, biche-de-mar, ambergris, betel-nut, agar-wood, and (with the exception of teak) timber fit for ship-building. In February 1826 the principal Chinese merchant was bringing 200 of his countrymen from Penang to work the mines of tin, which metal appears to stop in this country, it not being found further north. The numerous rivers and creeks penetrating the interior to the heart of the forest, afford great facilities for boat and prow-building. The production of the delicious mangosteen and dorian fruits also stop here, not being found to the north. The last, although of rapid decay, were sent to the court of Ummerapoora as a great delicacy. The plough is not used in this quarter, the rice fields being prepared more by the trampling of buffaloes, of which considerable numbers are kept, although the natives make little use of their milk and butter, both of which, as well as of the cow, are disliked by the Chinese and Indo-Chinese nations.

When conquered by the British in 1824 a large proportion of the inhabitants were found collected round the capital and along the sea-coast in its vicinity, the interior being then almost destitute of population. They consist of Burmese, Karians, Chinese, and a few Peguers. The religion of all is Buddhism, without distinction of caste. Marriage is merely a mutual assent, yet common prostitution was little practised until the arrival of the Europeans, for whom the females shewed a strong predilection. The laws and written character are Burmese, the language a dialect of Burmese. The custom of debtor slavery, or mortgaged labour, prevails universally; another great source of slaves was the sale of government criminals; price of a slave from thirty to sixty rupees. The last was immediately abolished by the British, but the first required time, it being a matter of property.

In 1825 the total population of Tavoy, Ye, and Tenasserim, comprehending a surface of 15,000 square miles, was only estimated at 26,000 inhabitants, or rather less than one and three quarters to the square mile. Under such circumstances these provinces appear well suited for the experiment of European colonization, and the concession of landed property, there being no native claimants to interfere with; an influx of industrious Chinese, however, would probably have ultimately a much more beneficial result. Hitherto, groaning under the tyranny of the Burmese, the natives have rather avoided the acquisition of money than sought it, having wrought solely by compulsion; it will consequently require more than the mere stimulus of punctual payment to make them forego the luxury of idleness. The example of Chinese settlers to rouse them to exertion is therefore of great importance, and in fact, without the natives of China (which like Britain

is now overflowing with population) the trade of Siam, Java, Penang, and other places eastward, would sink to nothing.

The receipts and disbursements for the provinces of Tavoy and Tenasserim, estimated prospectively, for 1826-7, were as follows.

Disbursements.	
Civil charges .....S. Rs.	90,000
Marine ditto.....	27,000
Contingencies	5,000
Excess of receipts	43,000
Sicca rupees...	1,65,000
Receipts.	
Birds'-nest monopoly	33,000
Different farms (opium, &c.)	54,000
Landed rent, ten per cent. produce	25,000
Judicial receipts	5,000
Profit on tin.....	48,000
Sicca rupees...	1,65,000

Besides the above disbursements the military charges were estimated at 1,60,000 rupees, and the expense of a Company's cruiser at 34,000 rupees. Two native regiments of about 1,500 infantry were required for their defence, and a small brig and four gun-boats to be employed among the creeks, islands, and rivers. —(*Fullerton, Low, Maingy, &c.*)

Tavoy.—This place stands on the banks of the Tavoy river, about thirty miles from its mouth; lat. 14° 4′ N., lon. 98° 5′ E. Its situation is unfavourable to commerce, as during the dry season vessels exceeding 150 tons burthen cannot approach within sixteen miles; it had therefore better be abandoned for some port nearer the river's junction with the sea, such as Crab island, which is only twelve miles up, and where ships now anchor. Prows, junks, and small craft, however, can ascend at all seasons, but the site of the town being low, it becomes during the rainy season almost a swamp, although there are eminences in the neighbourhood. The spot was probably originally selected to shun the Siamese.

The fort consists of two walled enclosures, 500 to 800 yards distant from each other. The extent of the inner wall, which is constructed of burned bricks, is about two miles and a half; the outer wall only encloses the north and west faces. In 1825 the whole population of the province were congregated either within the town or in its vicinity, so that it is impossible to assign it any definite number. From hence to Bankok, the capital of Siam, is reckoned only nine days' journey overland.

So late as 1826 some persons who had been chiefs under the Burmese were secretly creating an agitation by working on the hopes and fears of the natives, but they were removed to Rangoon; after which the Tavoyers, who are a quiet, orderly race, when they became convinced that the transfer was final, appeared delighted with their escape from the Burmese yoke. —(*Gov. Fullerton, Lieut. Low, Mr. Maingy, Capt. Burney, &c.*)

Tawally Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, one of the Gilolo group, situated within the first degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at thirty-five miles, by six the average breadth.

Taweetawee.—A cluster of islands in the Eastern seas, about fifty-six in number, forming part of the Sooloo archipelago. Some are of considerable extent, others are high, some low, and not a few mere rocks. The chain of islands to the south-east of Taweetawee are all low, with a labyrinth of shoals between them, abounding with fish, and productive of the pearl oyster. The main island has plenty of excellent water, but very few inhabitants. The names given to many of these small islands in the Malay language are so indecent that they do not admit of translation.—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

Taweerghiri.—A considerable village in the province of Bejapoor, division of Gujunderghur, about thirty-four miles north from the ancient city of Bijanagur. This place is situ-

ated among low hills in a wild country, and from the numerous ruins of Mahomedan tombs appears to have been once a place of some importance. At present it belongs to the Nizam.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TAYA ISLE *(Pulo Taya)*.—A small island in the Eastern seas, situated on the east coast of Sumatra; lat. 0° 48′ N., lon. 105° 5′ E.

TEARY.—See TEHREE.

TEEPGAON.—A town in the province of Malwa, four miles distance from Mahomedpoor, which in 1820 belonged to Holcar, and contained about 300 houses.

TEESTA RIVER *(tishta, standing still)*.—The source of this river has never been explored, but according to Nepaulese reports it rises in Tibet, whence, after opening a passage through the great Himalaya ridge, forming the boundary of the Chinese empire, it enters the mountainous country to the south, and before the last war separated the dominions of the Gorkhas from those of the Bootan or Deb raja. While proceeding from the hills the Teesta falls down the precipices of a mountain, about fifty miles north of Jelpigory, and enters the Rungpoor district near its northern extremity, where it is bounded by the principality of Sikkim, and has a channel 800 yards wide, containing at all seasons a great deal of water, with a quick stream broken by rocks and rapids. South from the cataract single logs of wood can be floated to within ten miles of the Bengal frontier, to which distance canoes can ascend. In the dry season boats of 150 maunds can ascend to Paharpoor, near the frontiers of Sikkim; but during the rains boats of 1,000 maunds. This river, during its course through the British territories, receives the accession of many streams, and is subjected to frequent changes of name and channel, until it at last joins the Pudda, or great eastern branch (or trunk) of the Ganges near Nabobgunge, after performing a course, including windings, of about 400 miles.

The deity of the Teesta river is supposed to be an old woman, and is one of the common objects of worship, or village gods, among the simple ethnics of the vicinity. This venerable nymph envying the attention paid to a rival named Budiswara, detached a portion of her river to destroy the temple where her competitor received adoration. The stratagem however did not succeed, as the stream detached on this predatory excursion, through the counter influence of Budiswara, was met and swallowed up by another river named the Korotoya. Branches of this river which have ceased to be the principal channels are, as is frequent among the natives, named the dead Teesta. Its name in Sanscrit is said to be Trishna or Trisrota, the first implying thirst, the latter three springs. According to the Calipurana it is said to have originated in the following manner. Parvati, the wife of Siva, was one day fighting with an asura, or infidel, who would only worship her husband. This monster during the combat becoming very thirsty prayed to Siva, who rather unreasonably ordered his wife to supply her adversary with drink to refresh him. The Teesta in consequence sprung from the breasts of the goddess in three streams, and in like manner has ever since continued to flow.

The Teesta begins to swell in the spring, and usually rises two or three inches between the 12th of April and the 12th of June, owing probably to the melting of the snow, no considerable change, however, takes place until the rainy season. Above and below Chilmary it communicates with the Brahmaputra by means of several channels.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

TEETLACOT.—A fortified post in the Choudan's country, in Northern Hindostan, three miles north from the Cali river; lat. 29° 58′ N., lon. 80° 37′ E.

TEESGAON.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty-eight miles N.E. from Ahmednuggur; lat. 19° 13′ N., lon. 75° 18′ E.

TEHRWARA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, about fifteen miles north from Rahdunpoor; lat. 23° 53′ N., lon. 71° 25′ E. In 1809 this place nominally belonged to Kumaul Khan, but was in fact a den of thieves, and in 1820 its inhabitants continued to be the terror of the country. Its chief was then a Baloochy, although his dependents were Coolies. He had many subordinate towns and villages, from which tribute was claimed, and sometimes realized: but the whole of this portion of Gujerat at the date last mentioned, presented a scene of general desolation. In 1809 the military force of Tehrwara consisted of forty horse and 300 foot; in 1820 of two horse and eighty-two foot.—(*Miles, Macmurdo, &c.*)

TEHINTCHIEW RIVER.—A river of Bootan, which passes Tassisudon, and being swelled by the united streams of the Hatchieu and Patchieu, finds a passage through the mountains from whence it is precipitated in tremendous cataracts, and rushing with rapidity between the high cliffs and vast stones that oppose its progress, descends into a valley a few miles east of Buxedwar, from whence it proceeds to Bengal, where, under the name of Gudadhar, it joins the Brahmaputra not far from Rangamatty.—(*Turner, &c.*)

TEHREE *(or Teary)*.—The capital of a petty Bondela chief, whose territories are situated on the north-western frontier of Bundelcund, fifty-one miles west from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 45′ N., lon. 78° 52′ E. The Tehree raja appears to have been an independent chief ever since the dissolution of the Mogul empire, never having been considered tributary to Sindia or any other more powerful state, although, like all other small principalities, liable to have contributions extorted by such marauders as possessed sufficient strength. About A.D. 1777, Raja Puchin Singh, the then reigning chief of Tehree, in a fit of furious mental derangement put the wife of the late Raja Sawunt Singh, his predecessor, to death. On recovering from his temporary phrenzy, being seized with remorse, he abdicated the throne and became a wandering mendicant. His pilgrimage was traced as far as Chitracole, after which he was never heard of. At present the villages belonging to the Tehree state are so intermixed with others, the property of adjacent chiefs, that it is impossible to discriminate them with any pretensions to accuracy. In 1812 his revenue was estimated at four lacks of rupees.—(*Richardson, &c.*)

TEJARAH.—A subdivision of the Agra province, which, from the notice taken of it by Abul Fazel, must in his time have been of considerable importance, but latterly it has almost lost its place in the maps, and is otherwise but little known.

TELLIAGURRY.—A small town in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, twenty-three miles N.W. from Rajamahal; lat. 25° 15′ N., lon. 87° 37′ E. The hills here descend to the river, and collectively form the boundary between the old Mogul provinces of Bengal and Bahar. Sultan Shujah built here a fortress, which has been a considerable work, the two extremes being a mile from each other. The gates are of stone, but the houses within are built of brick. In 1810 an iron cannon of extreme rudeness still remained at the gate.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

TELINGANA.—In the institutes of Acber this region is named Berar, but was only in part possessed by that sovereign. The Telingana language is the Andhra of Sanscrit authors, and the word Telinga is at once the name of a nation, of its language, and of the country in which it is spoken, where it is also named Trilinga, Teloogoo, and Tenoogoo. The Telinga language, formerly called the Kalinga, occupies the space to the eastward of the Maharatta, from near Ganjam, its northern, to within a few miles of Pulicat its southern boundary, with the intervention of a strip of territory where the Gond tongue is used.

The above space was divided into the Andhra and the Kalinga countries, the former to the north, the latter to the south of the Godavery, and the aggregate comprehended the five Northern Circars, a large portion of the Nizam's dominions, the districts of Cudapah and Bellary, and the northern portion of the lower Carnatic, besides Telinga families scattered over Dravida and the ancient Carnatic, now named Mysore. In a specimen of the Lord's Prayer, translated into this language, the missionaries traced fifteen words, used in the Bengalese, besides others from a Sanscrit source. At the era of the Mahomedan conquest the greater part of these united provinces seem to have been known to that people by the general designation of Telingana, and Warangol as the capital of the whole. By the English, and other Europeans, the Telingas were formerly called Gentoos, a name unknown to any Indian dialect. — (*Wilks, A. D. Campbell, Colebrooke, Rennell, &c.*)

Tellichery (*Tulechari*).—A seaport town on the Malabar coast, 126 miles travelling distance from Seringapatam; lat. 11° 45′ N., lon. 75° 33′ E. This place was long the chief settlement on the coast of Malabar; but the East-India Company's commerce having been tranferred to Mahé in 1800, it has since considerably declined. The richest natives, however, still reside here, and the inhabitants are far more civilized than in other parts of the province. The grounds within the old English lines are highly cultivated, and the thriving state of the plantations on the sandy land shews that the whole is capable of improvement. Tellichery is the mart for the best sandal-wood brought from above the ghauts; and the cardamoms of Wynaad, which are mostly exported from hence, are reckoned the best on the coast.

In A.D. 1683 the presidency of Surat established a factory here for the purchase of pepper and cardamoms; and in 1708 the East-India Company obtained a grant of the fort of Tellichery from the Colastry or Cherical raja. During the reign of Tippoo, in consequence of his hostile policy, this settlement was supported at a great expense, and partook so little of the commerce of the country, that the Bombay government contemplated its relinquishment. In A.D. 1800 Tellichery, Mahé, and Darmapatam, formed a circle containing 4,481 houses. — (*F. Buchanan, Dirom, Duncan, &c.*)

Tello.—A town in the island of Celebes, formerly the capital of an independent principality; lat. 5° 5′ S., lon. 119° 30′ E. In A.D. 1677 the state of Tello was bounded on the north by the Coerees, two islands situated south of the river Maros; and to the south it reached as far as Fort Rotterdam. The princes of Goak and Tello were both called kings of Macassar, although each is a separate state, deriving their names from their capitals. Both, however, have long been under the power of the Dutch.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, &c.*)

Tenasserim. — This province is bounded on the west by the great Siamese range of mountains, which are flanked by parallel ridges running north and south, and gradually declining in height as they approach the plains. The intervening valleys are narrow, and serve as outlets to the mountain streams, flowing S.S.W. until they reach the sea. Some of the highest peaks in the central chain behind the British territories have been estimated at 5,000 feet, and the connecting hills and ridges at about 3,000 feet in height; but interruptions in the continuity of the chain occur in various parts, increasing as the south is approached. The breadth of the belt formed by the parallel ranges has been computed at thirty miles, but no actual survey has yet taken place. In the latitudes of Mergui and Junk Ceylon the breadth decreases, and near the place last-mentioned the hills reach within eight miles of the sea. The whole

of this mountainous belt is covered with jungle, almost impenetrable except by breaks in the chain and by the dry beds of torrents, and inhabited by wild beasts, and a few Karian tribes scarcely less wild. Further east beyond this natural boundary lie several important and fertile Siamese provinces, through which flow streams navigable for boats and small prows.

On the north Tenasserim Proper is bounded by the Tavoy province; on the south it is separated from the Siamese possessions on the sea-coast by a small stream about lat. 10° 35′ N., 430 miles sailing distance from Prince of Wales' Island; on the west Tenasserim is shut in from the violence of the S.W. monsoon by a chain of rocky islands named the Mergui archipelago. The Tenasserim river rises in the hills north-east of Tavoy, about lat. 15° 30′ N., and as far as the parallel of Tavoy town flows through a valley just wide enough to permit its passage, but it afterwards expands and becomes navigable, having been ascended by the Thetis cruizer as high as old Tenasserim, with ample depth of water. According to native accounts it is navigable for small boats and canoes 100 miles above its mouth. From old Tenasserim a small branch diverges towards the gulf of Siam, which formerly much facilitated the inroads of the Siamese. This tract along the sea-coast is much intersected by creeks and rivers.

Almost the whole of this province is at present covered by forest trees and jungle, only some spots of land being cultivated in the immediate vicinity of Mergui, and along the banks of the Tenasserim river, and a few occasional patches amidst the forest. Rice is raised on the island of Nauple, and other insulated spots in front of Mergui; but the total produce in 1825 was not adequate to the supply even of its own scanty population. The rock formation here is sand-stone, and the soil a red clay, every where indicative of sterility.

Tin is abundant, and with a sufficient number of labourers a great quantity may be obtained; birds'-nests from the sea-coast and islands, sapan-wood from the interior, lignum aloes, an inferior description of sandal-wood, and many other woods, barks, drugs, resins and balsams, not yet examined, rattans, dammer, stick-lac, timber for ship-building and cabinet-work, but no teak, are the remaining articles of commercial value.

The original inhabitants of Tenasserim are supposed to have been a distinct race from the neighbouring nations; but their long subjection to the Burmese and Siamese has so completely obliterated all peculiarities, that they are not now to be distinguished from the Burmese, whose costume, manners, laws, and religion, they have adopted. The Karians are not numerous, and only to be found above old Tenasserim in small scattered tribes. Prior to the British conquest in 1824, the whole population of the province appears to have congregated in and around the town of Mergui; the modern capital, Tenasserim having been destroyed by the Siamese, who during the war carried off 1,000 of the inhabitants into slavery, but were compelled subsequently to restore most of them by the interference of the British. In A.D. 1825 the town of Mergui and scattered hamlets in its vicinity were supposed to contain about 1,500 houses, and 8,000 persons. What follows, although placed under the head of Tenasserim, applies to the British conquests south of Rangoon collectively, *viz.* Martaban, Ye, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and the Mergui isles.

At Martaban the south-west monsoon and the rains set in together about the beginning of May, but they are severest in June, July, and August. In September the winds and rains moderate; in October they become still less, and in the beginning of November entirely cease, after which the cold season sets in, which continues until the end of February, the climate in many respects greatly

resembling that of Bengal. In a country so abundantly supplied with moisture, and so completely covered with a most luxuriant vegetation, hot winds are unknown; on the sea-coast the regular land and sea winds prevail. The geological formation is almost universally granite; that of the islands granite, with an occasional intermixture of lime and sand-stone.

The present inhabitants consist principally of Reguers or Taliens, Burmese, Carians, Taoungzee, Cholomé, and Pasa; but the first class are much the most numerous, the emigrants from Pegu up to June 1827 exceeding 20,000 persons. If peopled like Hindostan, the space is capable of supporting 4,700,000. Many Chinese settlers may be expected, when we consider the extraordinary influx of that nation similarly or less favourably situated. Borneo, Java, Banca, and several other islands, the peninsula of Malacca, Siam, Rhio, Singapoor, Penang, &c. all possess thousands of that industrious people, who will no doubt resort to those provinces, where they will find their property and persons protected. At present there is no inequality of property or rank, because wealth was rarely permitted to be either accumulated or inherited. At present the revenues arise from the land-tax, poll-tax, salt duties, fisheries, mines, monopolies, customs, transit, market and excise duties, and coinage. In 1827 the total amount of the revenues amounted to only 3,42,770 rupees, but were in ten years to exceed fifteen lacks of rupees.

The institution of inland commercial marts and fairs, to accommodate the Siamese, Shans, and other distant nations, was contemplated, more especially at a post called Prau Thounghy, or the three pagodas, on the frontiers of Siam, to which stick-lac of a superior quality may be brought from Laos, and raw silk from China. The teak forests of Martaban have been ascertained to be of great extent, and to contain timber of the very best quality. The best ports are Amherst, Tavoy, and Mergui, at all of which ship-building may be advantageously carried on. The distance between the mouths of the Rangoon and Martaban rivers is only seventy miles, and this quarter of the Burmese territories are particularly vulnerable.—(*Crawfurd, Lieut. Low, Fullerton, Maingy, &c.*)

Tenasserim River.—This river is said to have its source in the eastern hills, whence it flows south-westward until it joins the sea by two mouths at Mergui. It is navigable for boats above 100 miles from its debouchure, and above thirty miles for vessels of small burthen.—(*Crawfurd, Low, &c.*)

Tengale.—A town on the sea-coast of Ceylon, division of Negampatoo, situated near the south-eastern extremity, having a small bay, and tolerably good anchoring ground; lat. 6° 8′ N., lon. 80° 48′ E. This place is so situated that both monsoons are land winds, and is remarkable for droughts; in one instance twelve months elapsed without the fall of a single drop of rain.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Tengayapatam.—A small town in the Travancore province, thirty miles W.N.W. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 16′ N., lon. 77° 25′ E.

Ternate Isle (*Ternati*).—One of the small Moluccas, about twenty-five miles in circumference, situated on the west coast of Gilolo; lat. 50° N., lon. 127° 20′ E. The Dutch province of Ternate includes Tidore, Motir, Machian, and Batchian, which are properly the Moluccas, being the original places of growth of the finer spices. Larger nutmegs are still found in the woods of Ternate than any produced in Banda. Although all efficient power has long been possessed by the officers of the Dutch establishment, a native sovereign, the sultan of Ternate, has continued to exercise certain functions of royalty over the natives of the island. In 1774 his nominal dominions comprehended the greatest portion of the north of Gilolo, and also a great part

of the north-east of Celebes, where are the Dutch settlements of Manado and Gorontolu. Sangir also belonged to him, and the neighbouring islands of Siao, Karakita, Tagulanda, Banca, and Tellusyani.

On this island, in 1775, there were three mosques for the Mahomedans, and one church for the Dutch, but none for the Portuguese, who had become as black as the natives. The country is divided into five districts, over which there are five chiefs, and also a captain laut or high admiral, who commands the sultan's prows. Besides these there is an officer who superintends the police. The Dutch settlers reside at Fort Orange, and consist of a governor and council, a shahbunder, and fiscal. In 1777 the Dutch establishment, civil and military, comprehended 847 persons, by whom the trade was in a great measure monopolized; the Chinese, however, always enjoyed considerable privileges. At that date no Chinese junk was permitted to visit Ternate direct from China, but they were allowed to trade to Macassar, which may be considered the western frontier of the Moluccas.

The first Mahomedan sovereign of Ternate is said to have reigned from 1466 to 1486. In 1521 it was visited by the Portuguese, who took formal possession, but they were expelled in 1530. In 1579 it was touched at by Sir Francis Drake, who according to the fashion of the day, took possession of it in the name of Queen Elizabeth. The Portuguese repossessed it, and along with the kingdom of Portugal it devolved to the Spaniards, who lost Ternate in 1606, but retained a footing in the Moluccas until 1663. In 1680 the Dutch compelled the sultan of Ternate to become tributary to them, and the princes of the other Moluccas were subsequently so thoroughly subdued, that in 1778 the kings of Tidore and Batchian were dethroned and exiled to Batavia. With the Dutch it remained until the revolutionary war, when it was twice captured by the British, but ultimately restored at the peace of 1814.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, Forrest, &c.*)

TERRIANI (*Turyani, named also Terraie*).—The word Turyani properly signifies low marshy land that is navigable, the term implying a country of boats; but by the Nepaulese the word is applied to that portion of their kingdom situated on the great plain of Hindostan. The British section of the Terriani is principally comprehended in the Sarun district, and is a flat uninteresting tract, in some parts bare of trees, but generally covered with a rank vegetation. Rice is the chief produce, and herds of cattle are scattered over the country, which in the dry season abounds with game, but during the rains these are obliged to seek shelter on the higher grounds. Such is this tract to the edge of the forest that borders the base of the mountains, from which wild elephants issue during the night, and commit depredations on the neighbouring rice-fields.

The Nepaulese Terriani is a belt of much greater extent, and in general about twenty miles in breadth. In this space there are a few small hills scattered, and much poor land, overgrown with trees and bushes of little value; but there is also a very large proportion of rich land, where the soil is much better than in the contiguous parts of the British territory, but being less cultivated, abounds more with wild beasts, such as elephants and rhinoceroses. The breed of the first is of an inferior description, and in general has a toe of one of its feet much lengthened, which gives it an unseemly appearance. Tigers are not so numerous as might have been expected; black bears of a large size are troublesome; wild hogs, hog-deer, hares, foxes, and jackals, are to be found in abundance. In some parts of the Terraie north of Rohilcund the climate is so unhealthy, that not only the monkeys, but every thing that has the breath of life, instinctively deserts them from the beginning of April until October.

In the waste lands of the Nepaulese Terriani, the most common trees are the palas (*erythinia monosperma*) and the simul (*bombax heptaphyllum*), but by far the greater proportion of these wastes is covered with long grass or reeds, which are burned once a year, in order to clear the country and improve the pasture. Owing to the moisture and coolness of the air, the fields at all seasons preserve some verdure; but the grass seems to be of a very bad quality, as the cattle, although plentifully supplied, are to the last degree wretched. The whole tract is intersected with numerous small streams, which not only answer the purposes of irrigation, but when swollen by the rains become navigable, and enable the farmer to send down the produce of his fields to a distant market, as well as to float down the valuable timber that skirts the lower ranges of the hills.

Before the Nepaulese conquests in this quarter, the petty rajas who governed its different portions were so much afraid of their neighbours that they did not promote the cultivation of this low country, but on the contrary rather encouraged the extension of the woods, contenting themselves with its produce in elephants, timber, and pasture. Even then, however, many rich spots were occupied, and productive, but they were so completely buried among the jungle as to escape observation. The Nepaulese being more confident in their own strength, have cleared much land, although a great deal still remains to be done. Even now they export a great quantity of grain, and were property more secure, the territory is capable of yielding considerable resources. The climate is considerably cooler and moister than in the vicinity of Patna, and the hot winds, according to report, are almost a month later. About the first of April, however, the country becomes very unhealthy, good water scarce, and until the setting in of the cold season the people are subject to fevers and disorders in the bowels, which by the natives of Nepaul are attributed to the ayul, or poisonous air, which many of them imagine proceeds from the breath of large serpents, supposed to inhabit the forests of the northern mountains. The existence of such serpents in any considerable number is worse than doubtful, and the unhealthiness of the climate may be accounted for from the quantity of vegetable putrefaction, stagnant water, and similar causes.

At the conclusion of hostilities in 1815 the Bengal government at first determined to insist on the entire cession of the Nepaulese Terriani or low lands; but the experience of a season's occupation proved them of little profit as to revenue and of extremely difficult management, while the climate was so destructive as to render the continuance of troops or civil officers for one half of the year utterly impracticable. As a politic act of conciliation therefore, the whole of the eastern Terriani from Goruckpoor to the Cosa was restored to the Nepaulese in lieu of certain pensions to the chief Gorkha leaders; and the western, together with a very jungly pergunnah on the Goggra, was transferred to the king of Oude in extinction of one of the two crores of rupees, obtained from him during the war.—(*F. Buchanan; Public MS. Documents, Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

Teshoo Loomboo *(or Diggarcheh)*.—A town in Tibet, the headquarters of the Teshoo Lama, who is protected and worshipped by the Chinese emperors of the present dynasty; lat. 29° 7′ N., lon. 80° 2′ E., 180 miles north from the frontiers of the Rungpoor district in Bengal.

Teshoo Loomboo, or Lubrong, is properly a large monastery, consisting of 300 or 400 houses, the habitations of the Gylongs (Buddhist monks), besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff. Its buildings are all of stone, and none less than two stories high, flat-roofed, and covered with a parapet rising considerably above the roof, composed of heath and brushwood. The fortress of Shiggatzee

Jeung stands on a prominent ridge of rock, and commands the pass. From hence there are roads to Bootan and Bengal, to Lahore and Cashmere, to the mines of lead, cinnabar, copper, and gold, by Tingri to Nepaul, to Lassa, and to China. The distance from hence to Catmandoo by the marching road is estimated at 400 miles. In 1780 the journey of the deceased Lama's attendants from Pekin to Teshoo Loomboo, occupied seven months and eight days. On the north is the territory of Taranath Lama, bordering on Russia and Siberia, whose influence more especially extends over the Kelmauks, or hordes of Calmuck Tartars.

The plain of Teshoo Loomboo is perfectly level, and is encompassed on all sides by high rocky hills. Its direction is north and south, and its extreme length fifteen miles; its southern extremity in breadth, from east to west, is five or six miles. The river Panomchieu, flowing from the south, intersects it, and at a small distance to the north joins the Sanpoo. The hills are of a rocky nature, of the colour of rusty iron, and are easily shivered by the weather into little cubical pieces, small enough to be moved about by the wind. The rock of Teshoo Loomboo is by far the loftiest of all that are in its neighbourhood, and commands an extensive view, but no striking traces of population are to be discovered, the natives crowding into the hollow recesses. From the north side the Sanpoo or Erechoomboo is visible, flowing in a widely extended bed through many winding channels, forming a multitude of islands. Its principal channel is described as being narrow, deep, and never fordable.

In 1783, when visited by Captain Turner, there were reckoned on the establishment of the monastery at Teshoo Loomboo no less than 3,700 Gylongs for the performance of daily prayer in the goomba or temple. Four Lamas chosen from among them superintend and direct their religious ceremonies. Their stated periods of devotion are the rising of the sun, noon, and sunset. Youths intended for the service of the monastery are received into it at the age of eight or ten years. On admission they are enjoined sobriety, forego the society of women, and confine themselves to the severe discipline of the cloister. There are also a considerable number of nunneries, the regulations of which are equally strict, and an extensive establishment under the direction of the monastery for the manufacture of images. At the capital 300 Hindoo Gossains and Sanyassies are daily fed by the bounty of the Lama. The extent of his dominions, and the details of his government are little known; but the system certainly exhibits a hierarchy of long duration, and of some practical benefit to society. The Gylongs or monks, having devoted themselves to the duties of religion, obtain a larger portion of respect from their countrymen who follow worldly occupations. Being attached by a common bond of union, the one portion to labour and the other to pray, they enjoy in peace and harmony the bounties of nature, and before the Gorkha inroad in 1790 found it unnecessary to maintain a single armed man, either to defend their territory or to assert their rights. Since that unjust aggression the bonds of their dependence on the Chinese have been tightened; and in 1816 the police of the town of Diggarchdh or Teshoo Loomboo was under the charge of a resident Zoongpoon, acting under the Tazin and judicial authorities at Lassa.—(*Capt. Turner, General Kirkpatrick, Abdul Russool, &c.*)

THAKACOTE.—This is the chief mart of trade between that portion of Northern Hindostan adjacent to the course of the Gunduck river and Tibet, the goods being mostly conveyed by hill-porters, or on the backs of sheep. Lat. 29°6′ N., lon. 83°6′ E. According to native accounts the Gunduck is no where fordable below this place, being crossed either on wooden bridges, or on swinging bridges of ropes and rattans. This place, said

to contain 1,000 houses, is situated in a fine valley, which has been compared with that of Nepaul, but is not so wide. At a short distance to the south-west, the white mountain Dhawalaghiri rears its enormous head, estimated to be 26,462 feet above the level of the sea.

THAKAM *(tha, place, kham, ferry)*, —A river of the Malay peninsula, which flows through the isthmus of Kraw, and joins the sea by two channels in the gulf of Siam. At the mouth of the most northern stands a town named Thathog, which forms the northern boundary of the Ligore raja's government. The southern channel is called the Bandon, which name is sometimes given to the whole. This is known to be a considerable stream which leads to Perniom, three day's journey from Phoonga near Junk Ceylon. There are many islands at the mouth of the Bandon branch, named by Horsburgh and Valentyn, the Larchin Isles.—(*Capt. Burney, &c.*)

THAKIL PEAK.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, thirty-two miles E.S.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 31′ N., lon. 80° 12′ E.; 8,221 feet above the level of the sea.

THAKOOR GOOMBA.—A town in Tibet, the residence of the Saymrupa Lama, ninety miles N.E. from Catmandoo; lat 28° 28′ N., lon. 86° 8′ E.

THANCOTE.—A small town in Nepaul, seven miles west of Catmandoo, situated on a rocky eminence at the south-west corner of the Nepaulese valley, in a district separated from the others of the plain by a ridge of low hills, on the most conspicuous part of which stands Kirthipoor; lat. 27° 41′ N., lon. 84° 54′ E.

THANUSAR.—An ancient town and modern Seik chiefship in the province of Delhi, eighty-three miles N. by E. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 55′ N., lon. 76° 48′ E. By Abul Fazel in A.D. 1582 it is described as follows. "Thanesur is held sacred by the Hindoos. The river Sursuti (Sereswati), to which the Hindoos pay great adoration, runs past it: In the vicinity is a lake named Khooket, to which pilgrims come from afar to worship and bestow charity. This was the scene of the war of the Mahabharat. Out of the immense multitude of forces on the one side, and the troops of Judhishteer on the other, only twelve persons survived the slaughter, of which number four were of the army of Doorjodhen, namely, Keeracharij, a Brahmin, who had been preceptor to the Cooroos and Pandoos; 2. Ashotaman, who had exercised the same office; 3. Keerut, a Brahman of the Jadown tribe; 4. Sujey, who drove the chariot of Dritarashter. The other eight survivors were of the Pandoo army, *viz.* the five Pandoo brothers; Sateck, of the Jadown tribe; Hugtash, who was Doorjodhen's brother by another mother; and Krishna, whose fame is so universal as to render any account of him unnecessary. Near to this place stood the ancient city of Hustinapoor."

When taken by Mahmood of Ghizni in A.D. 1011 Thanusar was still the capital of a powerful kingdom. At present it is the next town in importance to Pattiallah in the Sirhind district, and is still held in high veneration by the Hindoos. The inhabitants of the surrounding country are chiefly Jauts, many of whom have become Seiks, and there are also a few Rajpoots of low caste. In 1822 the chiefship of Thanusar was disputed between Punjab Singh, the full brother, and Koonwur, the widow of the deceased chief Goolab Singh. The first was acknowledged by the British government, care being taken to secure an adequate provision for Koonwar and the other widows.—(*Sir John Malcolm, George Thomas, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

THAUMPE *(named Tongsu by the Burmese)*.—A district of India beyond the Ganges, which is said to lie about twenty-five or thirty days' journey N.N.E. of Tongho in Pegu,

near the borders of Laos and northern Siam. The chief town bearing the name of the district, is situated about forty miles from the hills somewhere near to lat. 19° N. According to native report, for it never has been visited by any European, it contains about 5,000 inhabitants, and is defended by a stockade.

This country is inhabited by the Plau, a distinct race, not only from the Burmese and Siamese, but from the adjacent tribes, resembling much more the Chinese than any other people. They are probably some branch of the great Shan or Lao tribe, which under different appellations appears to occupy the central and northern parts of India beyond the Ganges, and the word Plau appears to be some modification of the old designation Lao or Laos of the Portuguese. They are described as an unwarlike race, much addicted to agriculture and commerce, and of course tyrannized over by their neighbours the Burmese and Siamese. They are Buddhists in religion, yet burn their dead. Their marriage feasts consists of poultry, buffaloe and cow beef, venison, monkeys' flesh, and large rats; their drink an ardent spirit distilled from rice.

The district of Thaumpé is governed by a Burmese chief who resides in the capital. The country is flat, tolerably clear, and well adapted for the rice cultivation, cattle, small horses and buffaloes are employed in agriculture. Cotton is raised, the tea-plant cultivated and the leaves pickled, indigo is quite common, blue being the prevalent colour, stick-lac is procured in the jungles, and the silk-worm reared. The forests contain many valuable trees, but the absence of navigable rivers prevents this source of traffic being made available. Gold is found in the mountain streams, iron is abundant and manufactured, tin, after disappearing in the north of Tavoy, again presents itself here in considerable quantities. The most productive mines are those of lead, and it is from hence that the Burmese armies are wholly supplied with that metal. The Plau send an annual caravan to Rangoon from whence they bring back salt, salt-fish, areca, woollens, piece-goods, crockery, and spices, in exchange for their own commodities. A commercial intercourse is also maintained between Thaumpé and China; from whence spices, silks, cottons, woollens, paint, paper, and cutlery, taking back the produce of the Plau country. The merchandize is transported on horses and asses, and the caravans are said frequently to muster above a thousand persons well provided with arms.—(*Public Journals, Lieut. Low, &c.*)

THEOG.—A town in Northern Hindostan, nineteen miles north from the Chour station; lat. 31° 7′ N., lon. 77° 24′ E.

THERAUD.—A town and district in on the north-western frontier of the Gujerat province; lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 71° 32′ E. The pergunnah of Theraud is bounded on the north by Marwar, Sanjore being thirty miles N.N.E. from the town. On the west it is bounded closely by Wow, which is only twelve miles distant. To the south it has Baboue, thirty miles distant, and on the east the district of Deesa, in which direction its territory extends forty miles. It is remarkable that the portion of the Theraudri next the Runn is best supplied with water, the tanks and wells at Soreegaum, Beenap, Wow, Golegaum, and Bookna being abundant, of an excellent quality, and found only a few feet below the surface, yet they are all within eight miles of that salt morass. At the town of Theraud water is found about sixty yards below the surface, but it is not always of a good quality, and the wells from which the neighbouring villages are supplied are frequently brackish. This scarcity of water prevents the cultivation of vegetables, of which, with the exception of onions brought from Rahdunpoor, Theraud is destitute.

In 1820 engagements were entered into with the British government by

Hur Ohanjee, the chief of Theraud, Hurbhanjee Waghela of Morewarra, Omer Khan Jut of Waryee, and Poongajee of Deodhur, all of whose territories had been ravaged and depopulated by troops from Joudpoor, by famine, and by Coolies and Khozas. In 1809 the town of Theraud contained 2,700 houses, 300 of which were inhabited by Banyans; the remainder by Coolies, Rajpoots, and Sindeans. At the above date the military force consisted of 1,200 horse and 500 foot; in 1820 it was reduced to 28 horse and 405 foot, and the revenue to 12,000 rupees per annum.—(*Macmurdo, Miles, &c.*)

THIAGUR.—A town in the Carnatic, fifty-two miles W.S.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 11° 42′ N., lon. 79° 8′ E. During the Carnatic wars of last century this was a strong place, and sustained several sieges.

THILOUTA.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, beautifully situated on the west bank of the river Soane, about nineteen miles N.N.E. from the fortress of Rhotas, and ninety-six S.S.W. from Patna. The vicinity of this place is much embellished with groves of trees, and several small Mahomedan tombs of free-stone in a pleasing style of architecture.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TIBET

(or Southern Tartary).

The limits of this extensive region have never been accurately defined, but for general purposes it may be considered as comprehending all the tract of country from the eastern boundaries of Cashmere, in lon. 74° E. to the frontiers of China, about lon. 100° E., slanting south along the line of the Himalaya, from lat. 37° N. to lat. 28° N. In length from east to west it may be estimated at 1,300 miles; but its breadth from south to north cannot be distinguished, the demarcation in that direction being lost in the vast Tartarean plain. By the natives of Hindostan the tract of country adjacent to and on both sides of the snowy peaks is termed Bhote (Bhota in Sanscrit), and the inhabitants Bhoteas; nor does it appear that the name of Tibet is any where in general use to designate the province, according to the European acceptation of the word. At present the whole territory (with the exception of Lahdack) is nominally or really subject to the Chinese; and it is the portion of Tibet more immediately governed by the viceroy of Lassa that the following general description chiefly refers. The principal modern territorial subdivisions commencing with Lassa, the seat of the Dalai, or grand Lama.

1. Lassa
2. Teshoo Loomboo
3. The Undes
4. Lahdack.

But between the two first and the two last a great expanse of unexplored country intervenes. According to the deba of Taclacote's information, the orders of the emperor of China reach Taclacote on the British frontier (almost due north of Lucknow) by the way of Tansieu, Lassa, Tazon, and Gurdon, the expresses being carried by horsemen, of whom there are relays on the road. From Pekin to Lassa, occupies forty-five days; from thence to Gurdon, fifteen days; and lastly to Taclacote, by a single horseman, six days, making a total of sixty-six days; but the time employed between the two last is scarcely reconcileable with their relalative positions. In 1816 the deba abovementioned, although a functionary under the emperor, could not recognize Pekin; China he called Geereu, and never had heard of the word Tibet.

This is an extensive plateau of great altitude, being part of the elevated table-land that gives rise not only to many great rivers of India and China, but also to those of Northern Tartary, or Siberia. The Indus and Sutuleje are known to have their sources in this elevated region; but the river which more peculiarly appertains to Tibet is the Sanpoo, respecting which further information

is extremely desirable. The Cailas and Himalaya both belong to Tibet, and contain between them the sacred lakes of Manasarovara and Rawan's Hrad. About the twenty-eighth degree of north latitude the Himalaya marks the boundary between Tibet and Bootan, and the summit of Chamalari is probably the highest land in this direction, as from thence the rivers begin to flow north. Little is known regarding the interior of Tibet; but it is supposed to consist of extensive stony or sandy plains, diversified by mountains of moderate height, and by pastures traversed by inconsiderable streams, which generally lose themselves in salt lakes or morasses. According to Chinese documents, the principal rivers of Tibet are the Sanpoo and the Mounchoo, which last rises in some mountains, about ninety miles E. by S. from Teshoo Loomboo, whence it runs almost parallel within but eighty miles south of the Sanpoo, which it is supposed afterwards to join. The river Galdjao flows past Lassa, a few miles to the south, and afterwards falls into the Sanpoo with a rapid current.

In the temperature of the seasons a remarkable uniformity prevails in this (the Lassa) quarter, both in their periodical duration and return, the same division nearly taking place as in Bengal. The spring is from March to May, with a variable atmosphere, heat, thunder storms, and occasional showers. From June to September is the season of humidity, when heavy and continued rains swell the rivers. From October to March a clear and uniform sky succeeds, seldom obscured by fogs or clouds. For three months of this period a degree of cold is felt, far greater, probably, than is experienced even in northern Europe. Its extreme severity is more particularly confined to the southern boundary of Tibet, near the elevated range of mountains which separate it from Nepaul, Bootan, and Assam. The summits of these are covered at all seasons of the year with snow, and their vicinity is remarkable at all times for the dryness of the winds. Here meat and fish are preserved during winter in a frozen state, as in Russia. Snow, however, is not an indication of excessive cold, as at Melville Island, in lat. 75° N., none falls during the whole winter, and the frosty spiculæ that floated in the air never lay deeper on the ground than a few inches. At Tuena, in Tibet, on the 16th September 1783, at six in the morning, the thermometer stood below the freezing point. The aridity of the atmosphere also in Tibet is very remarkable, and operates an effect similar to that of the scorching winds that prevail over some parts of Hindostan. Vegetation is frequently dried to brittleness, and every plant may be rubbed to dust between the fingers.

When first viewed, Tibet strikes the stranger as one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and apparently in a great measure not susceptible of cultivation, exhibiting only low rocky hills or extensive plains, unfavourable to vegetation. On account of the severity of the climate, the inhabitants are obliged to seek for shelter in the valleys and hollows. From Phari to Nainee, on the road leading from Bootan to Teshoo Loomboo, a distance of nearly fifty miles, the country is very little removed in aspect, culture, and population from a desert. The hills are bare, and composed of a stiff, dry, mouldering rock, which splits and shivers with the frost. The usual crops are barley, coarse peas, and wheat, the first forming much the largest proportion of the whole. No rice is cultivated, and wheat is so scarce, that it never falls to the lot of the poorer classes. Coarse peas are given to horses and mules, and from barley the shraub (spirit, or whiskey) is distilled, which is so favourite a beverage with all ranks in Tibet. Turnips and radishes are the only garden vegetables, and peaches and bynes the only fruits. It is the practice of the cultivators to flood the low lands on the approach of winter with water, which freezing,

covers their surface with a sheet of ice, and thus preserves the scanty soil on their surface from the violence of the winds.

Although the surface of the country is so unpromising, its interior in some degree compensates by the richness of its mineral stores; and on the surface of this dry and elevated region the production of nitre is abundant and spontaneous. Gold is found in many parts, and often uncommonly pure. It is collected both from mines and the beds of rivers, attached to small pieces of stone; at other times it is found in large masses, lumps, and irregular veins. The gold mines are the exclusive property of the government, which, according to Abdul Russool, only permits one, situated eighteen munzils, or days' journey, west of Lassa, and within three munzils of a place named Lunchie, to be worked by contract on the following conditions: each individual applying for the privilege must come under an engagement to deliver to the sovereign six maashas of gold bullion, each maasha being rather more in weight than the tenth of a rupee, for which consideration he obtains permission to work the mine for three or four months. Whatever be the result of his labour he is obliged to deliver six maashas to the government; but any surplus he reserves to himself, except when he discovers any single mass weighing more than seven tolahs, which (according to the authority above quoted) he is required to deposit again in the mine to prevent its exhaustion. The right of mining is granted only to such a number of persons as shall be sufficient, by the delivery of six maashes each, to yield the government a total annual amount of five maunds, or about 400 pounds of pure bullion. Rock salt is found every where, but there is said to be no mines either of silver or iron. Cinnabar, containing a large proportion of quicksilver, is a production of Tibet, and might be advantageously extracted by distillation if fuel were more plentiful; but unfortunately it is remarkably scarce, the only substitute for firewood being the dried dung of animals. Thus situated, and in so rigorous a climate, the most valuable discovery for the frozen inhabitants of Tibet would be that of a coal mine. It is said that in some parts of China, bordering on Tibet, coal is found, and used as a fuel.

In Tibet a great superabundance of animal life is found, which is not the case in Bootan, where, except domesticated quadrupeds, there are no others, and besides pheasants almost no game. In Tibet, on the contrary, the variety and quantity of wild fowl, game, beasts of prey, flocks, droves and herds, are astonishing, and not to have been expected in so inhospitable a climate. Among the most remarkable animals is the yak or bushy-tail bull. In size they resemble the English cattle, and are covered all over with a thick coat of long hair. There is a great variety of colour among them, but white and black are the most prevalent. Although not large boned they seem of great bulk, owing to the profuse thickness of their coat. These cattle are pastured in the coldest parts of Tibet, on the short herbage peculiar to the tops of mountains and bleak plains. They are found almost every where, but the lofty mountains that separate Tibet from Bootan are their favourite haunts. They are never employed in agriculture, but are useful as beasts of burthen, and from their hair ropes and tents are manufactured. Throughout Hindostan their tails are in great request as chowries, to drive away flies and musquetoes; they are likewise employed as ornamental furniture for horses and elephants. They supply an abundant quantity of rich milk, from which excellent butter is procured, and when uneasy they make a grunting noise. Besides the yaks there are small cattle like those of Bengal, mostly employed in agriculture.

Another native of Tibet is the musk deer, which is observed to delight in intense cold. This animal is about the size of a moderate sized hog,

which it resembles in the figure of its body. It has a small head, a thick and round hind quarter, no scut, and extremely delicate limbs. From the upper jaw two long curved tusks proceed, directed downwards. It is covered with a prodigious quantity of hair, between two and three inches long, which grows erect over the body, and seems to partake more of the nature of feathers or of porcupine's quills. The musk is a secretion formed in a little bag, or tumour, resembling a wen, situated at the navel, and is only found in the male. This animal is here reckoned the property of the state, and can only be hunted by permission of government. In that portion of Tibet adjoining the Himalaya and Cailas mountains, the changes of temperature are so frequent and sudden, that the indigenous quadrupeds require very warm clothing to protect them from its vicissitudes, and we find that nature has accordingly very liberally supplied them with the fittest materials. The sheep has a very thick and heavy fleece; the goat has at the root of his long shaggy hair a very fine fur interspersed; while the cow has a substance of the same sort, so little inferior in warmth and softness, that it might almost prove a substitute for the fur of the celebrated shawl goat, another peculiar production of Tibet. These creatures are of various colours, black, white, a faint bluish tinge, and of a shade somewhat lighter than a fawn. They have strait horns, and are of a lower stature than the smallest sheep in England. The material used for the manufacture of shawls is of a light, firm texture, and grows next the skin, having over it a covering of long coarse hair, which preserves the softness of the interior coat. After repeated trials it has been found impossible to rear this species of goat in any other country.

The hare of Tibet has a fur of peculiar length and thickness, and even the dog has a coat of fur added to his usual covering of thick hair. The wild horse, the wild ass, and it is reported, the mule are found among the Tartarian mountains, but it is not known that they have any covering approaching the nature of fur. The bharal (*ovis ammon*), partaking the nature both of a deer and a sheep, has at the base of its brittle hair a most beautiful brown fur. The domesticated horses are rather larger than the Bootan tanyans, and show considerable strength and speed. The mules are also large and strong, and are the ordinary carriage animals throughout Tibet. The dogs resemble the large Nepaul mastiff, and are both stout and ferocious. Immense flocks of sheep are pastured throughout the country, where mutton forms the principal animal food of the middling and higher ranks. They are also occasionally used as beasts of burthen, and flocks of them are seen in motion laden with grain and salt, each carrying from fifteen to twenty pounds. The skins of lambs are cured with the wool on, and constitute a valuable article of traffic. In order to obtain the skin in the highest degree of perfection, the dam is sometimes killed before her time of yeaning, which ensures a silky softness to the fleece, and renders it peculiarly fitted for the lining of vests, for which purpose it is in high estimation over all China and Tartary.

The principal intercourse of the Eastern Tibetians, commercial as well as political, is with China. There are two roads from Lassa to Pecheen, or Pekin, the Chinese capital. The first is the post road along which despatches are carried on horses, the journey to and from usually occupying two months, but expresses get over the space in twenty days; the other road is more circuitous, yet it is the one usually selected by merchants, being better adapted for the conveyance of baggage and merchandize. It is, however, much more tedious, and commonly employs eight months, but it is the route pursued by the annual caravan, which reaches Lassa in October, and sets out on its return to China in June. The caravan from China to Lassa in October usually comprehends an aggregate of 500 or

600 men, bringihg goods, on cattle, mules, and in some instances on horses. The principal imports to Lassa in 1814 were tea in large quantities; cocheen, a Chinese silk of coarse texture; khaduk, another coarse Chinese silk; various kinds of coarse cloths used for making tents, &c.; European broadcloth to a small amount; various kinds of silk; silver bullion in lumps, some weighing 166 rupees, others smaller; a little China-ware; pearls and coral; besides European cutlery and other miscellaneous articles. According to Abdul Russool, by a regulation of the Chinese government it is required, that the amount of silver bullion sent to Lassa by the caravan, for the payment of the Chinese troops stationed there, for the salaries of the tazin, viziers, and other contingencies, be received by the Chinese merchants in payment for the tea sold at Lassa and carried back to China, which appears a most cumbrous arrangement. The duties on exports from China to Lassa are collected before their departure from Pekin. No government escort attends the caravan to Lassa, but the imperial government is responsible for its security, and makes good all losses sustained by theft or robbery during the transit.

From Lassa to Pekin the caravan carries puttoo (a coarse woollen cloth manufactured near Lassa, of which a great amount is annually exported to China); toos (a fine woollen cloth, resembling the looee of Hindostan; and manufactured in Tibet); gold bullion, the produce of the Tibet mines; mushroo (a silk manufacture of Benares); Hindostan chintzes, Allahabad cloths, imported from upper Hindostan, and otter skins, chanks or large shells, rhinoceros'-horns, and peacock feathers, all in the first instance imported from Bengal.

A commercial intercourse subsists between Tibet and Assam, transacted on the confines of the respective states. The exports to Assam consist principally of silver bullion and rock-salt; the imports from Assam are rice, coarse silk, cloths, iron, stick-lac, and a few other articles of small value; the whole estimated at one lack of rupees.

It does not appear that any articles, the original produce or manufacture of Nepaul, are imported to Tibet; the first-mentioned country serving merely as a route for the merchandize of Hindostan, consisting principally of mushroo cloth and kinkaubs manufactured at Benares; otter skins, pearls, coral, chanks or large shells, and buffaloe horns, from Bengal; Allahabad cloth, coarse sugar, and sweetmeats from Hindostan, and broad-cloth, telescopes, mirrors, &c. of European manufacture. The exports from Tibet to Nepaul are tea, China silk, and silver, all originally from China; and musk, cow tails, and sable furs, the produce of Tibet. A Nepaulese vakeel on the part of the Gorkha raja resides at Lassa, where he adjusts the litigations of his countrymen, and communicates in political affairs with the Chinese functionaries. It is conjectured that there are from two to three thousand natives of the countries subject to Nepaul constantly residing in Lassa, where they act as gold and silver-smiths, and retail traders in puttoo, a coarse woollen cloth manufactured at Jogha, a small village in the neighbourhood of Lassa. The Tibetians entertain but an indifferent opinion of the Nepaulese as a nation, considering them turbulent, ambitious, and encroaching neighbours.

The natives of Cashmere established with their families at Lassa are computed at 150 persons, who carry on a considerable trade between that capital and their native country, from whence they import shawls, numdee, a very thick woollen cloth, saffron, and dried fruit. The exports to Cashmere are silver bullion, and tea, of which last article to the value of 1,50,000 rupees, is annually exported from Lassa to Cashmere. The commerce between Bootan and Tibet is not open and unrestricted, being monopolized by the Deb raja, who is the principal merchant in his own dominions, from whence he sends a

caravan annually, attended by about fifty persons, who convey from thirty to forty thousand rupees worth of goods, consisting principally of the following articles, *viz.* a small quantity of rice, barchatte cloth, burraee cloth, pearls and coral, all originally from Bengal. The return articles carried to Bootan are gold bullion, chowries or cow tails, tea, khaduk, a coarse Chinese silk, and cocheen, a Chinese embossed silk of a coarse texture.

The Sikkim, or Damoo Jung raja, sends annually an offering of a small amount to the grand Lama, in return for which he receives a present from that incarnation, but the real commerce is of trivial importance. The intercourse, however, is quite direct, the route attended with little difficulty, and under existing circumstances is apparently the best that a European, bent on exploring the country, could follow. Hindostan receives the merchandize of Tibet through the intervening countries. The principal article is gold, but from the concealment practised it is impossible even to conjecture to what amount; the next in importance is tincal, then musk, and formerly some rock-salt. Tibet is not, as has been supposed, destitute of woollen fabrics suited to the severity of the climate, although in beauty they cannot compete with the manufactures of England. The best is named toos, a fine kind of woollen cloth of a soft texture, manufactured at Lassa only, and capable of receiving a great variety of dyes. The next is named puttoo, which is a coarser cloth resembling English broad-cloth, and also fitted for the reception of any colour. Great quantities, especially of a red colour, are annually exported to China. According to Abdul Russool, the common currency of Tibet is a coin named tank, about 4*s.* 6*d.* in value, either whole or cut into halves. It has the appearance of a silver coin resembling the sicca rupee, but it contains very little silver, the greater part of its composition being a mixture of brass and copper, so that it is rather difficult to account for its maintaining its reputed value. Some few sicca rupees are likewise current. As in Bootan, the first member of the state here is also the chief merchant, he is consequently invested with privileges above the common adventurer, who cannot enter into competition with him.

In 1816, according to Chinese authorities, the jurisdiction of their sovereign extended in a westerly direction five days' journey from Gurdon which is about 81° east longitude, but does not include Lahdack. The Chinese tazin who represents the emperor at Lassa, may be virtually considered the viceroy of the province in all matters of real importance, the bonds of subjugation to the celestial empire having evidently been drawn closer since Captain Turner travelled in 1783. The appointment of the four viziers, who form the state council, cannot take effect until presented to him, and be subsequently confirmed by the Chinese emperor. An appeal, *en dernier ressort*, may be made to him from all capital punishments, and he may order the naib or deputy to revise any legal proceedings. His rank is next to that of the Lama, and above the rajas; in real power he is greatly superior to both. Of late years it has become part of his official duty to make an annual tour to the Nepaul frontier, and on the opposite side as far as China, attended by one of the four viziers, to examine the state of the country. For the expences of this excursion he is allowed 5,000 tanks (or about 10,000 rupees), which he seldom or never expends, extorting such articles as he requires from the inhabitants. This exaction, however, is said to be the only oppression the Tibetians suffer from their foreign masters, whose government is otherwise mild and lenient.

Within this vast province there are said to be only 1,000 Chinese troops permanently stationed; of which 400 remained at Lassa, 200 at Gyanchee (twelve days' journey west of Lassa), 300 at Teshoo Loomboo (ten days' jour-

ney south-west of Lassa), and 200 at Tingry fort, twenty-two days' journey W.S.W. from Lassa, and not far from the northern frontier of Nepaul. The small numerical amount of this force is partly accounted for by the entire reliance of the Lassa government on that of China for protection against foreign invasion; but it also goes far to prove the mildness and popularity of the government. The discipline is very bad, but the soldiers are said individually to be strong and hardy. Their weapons are matchlocks and swords, the last worn on the right side. For the origin of this practice there is a tradition, that when Tamerlane conquered Tibet he treated the inhabitants with universal clemency, on condition that they would adopt some custom which should in future ages recal the memory of his predominance in these remote countries, in fulfilment of which the Tibet military have ever since fixed the sword on the right side.

The Lamas are the priests of the sect of Buddha in Tibet, and the territories adjacent, and are monks who, at least nominally, have forsaken the pleasures of this world; they reject *in toto* the doctrine of caste, and a proselyte of any nation may be admitted into their order. Those who consider themselves the adherents of Sakya Gamba, who came from India about the time of our Saviour, and has ever since resided at Lassa, where he enjoys perpetual youth; but, besides this individual, there are many other personages who are considered to be incarnations of different Buddhas. Of this description the most remarkable are the Dharma raja, or spiritual chief of Bootan; but still more celebrated and sacred is the Teshoo Lama, who resides at Diggarcheh, or Teshoo Loomboo, and is the spiritual guide of the Chinese emperor.

The grand or Dalai Lama, who resides at Lassa, is considered by his adherents to be an incarnation of the divinity in a human form, on the dissolution of which he enters a new one, after a stated period, and, becoming thus revealed to the inhabitants of the earth, resumes his dormant functions. According to Abdul Russool, who long resided at Lassa, the mode adopted for ascertaining the identity of the new Lama, is the following:

Immediately after the mortal frame of the defunct Lama has ceased to breathe, the religious orders commence a course of peculiar ceremonies, and all classes join in prayer and supplication for the restoration of their lost deity. These mysteries and invocations are prosecuted for a period of three years, during which period sums of money are distributed from the public treasury, and the priesthood fare sumptuously. On the expiration of three years the naib or raja, who is the second sacred dignitary in the state, proceeds to ascertain the time, place, and form of the Lama's impending incarnation. At Lassa the high priests always reside, whose hereditary office it is to reveal the migration of the Lama into his new form, and the raja calls on these hierophants, at the expiration of the above period, to depose severally what they know regarding the expected descent of the Lama. Being thus appealed to, the high priest, having carefully secluded himself from all external communication, drinks shraub (spirits) until he is intoxicated, and also performs various ceremonies; after which, while thus inspired, he reveals in writing the time, place, and form of the new incarnation. This document being sealed up with much care, a similar reference is made to the second high priest, who having gone through a similar process of inspiration, produces his revelation, after which a conclusive reference, accompanied by the like solemnities, is made to the third high priest. When thus obtained, these three declarations are opened, and, if their separate prognostics regarding the new incarnation do not exactly coincide, the whole are rejected, and fresh ceremonies instituted.

On the other hand, when the three revelations exactly correspond, they are forwarded to the Teshoo Lama, who after examination confirms them as true and inspired, or rejects them as false and spurious. If the first, he promulgates his own written annunciation of the Lama's re-appearance, declaring that in such a family and form, and at such a time, the Lama has been or will be incarnate. This instrument, marked with his seal, is sent to Lassa, where it receives the seals of the nabs of the four villages which compose the supreme council, and of all the principal functionaries; after which, as a matter of form, it is sent to the emperor of China for his confirmation. When the truth of the revelation has been recognized by that powerful monarch, it is made public, after which the nobles, priests, and chief officers of government repair to the spot where the Lama's incarnation has been predicated, and conduct him with much pomp to the capital, where, after being inaugurated, he takes up his abode in the palace or sanctuary, and enters on all the functions of his exalted station. According to Abdul Russool, he always appears as an only child, whose father is secretly immolated immediately after his son's recognition. It is said, however, that notwithstanding the fatal result above alluded to, that the honour of being father to the lama is eagerly sought after, and that there never has been an instance of a Lama's incarnation except in a rich family.

Such is the Lama's entrance; when his exit takes place, the body is exposed to the air until it becomes dry, after which it is enshrined in a case of highly wrought silver, representing a human figure in an upright attitude, and is thus deposited in the temple as an idol to be worshipped. The personal residence of the grand Lama is at Patela (about eight miles distant from the city of Lassa), where 170 priests of the first rank, devoted to prayer and the performance of never-ending ceremonies, reside with him in the palace. He is almost entirely secluded from the world, never appearing in public but once annually, when he repairs to the grand temple to perform public worship at the commencement of the new year, and corresponding with the Hooly of the Brahminical Hindoos. Even after his installation he rarely gives any attention to the temporal affairs of his state, and none at all to its internal economy; yet it is said he generally takes exclusive cognizance of all correspondence with foreign states. On the arrival of a despatch from a foreign government, it is carried directly to the Lama, who immediately summons his council, which after deliberation repairs to the residence of the Chinese tazin, where the consultation is renewed. If the subject be of extraordinary importance, a reference is made by the tazin to the emperor of China; if otherwise, the tazin and council determine on the reply, which is carried to the Lama to receive the impression of his seal.

The evils that might be expected to arise from this union of the priestly and regal dignities in the same person, are greatly neutralized by the complete seclusion of the grand Lama from temporal affairs, his authority not decending to any of the inferior sacerdotal functionaries, who have no concern whatever with the civil administration of the state. At the annual celebration, however, of the great festival above-mentioned an exception occurs, as for twenty-four days all the regular civil authorities continue suspended, their power being for that period of time transferred to the principal priests. In fact the Tibetian nation appears to be divided into two distinct and separate classes, those who carry on the business of the world, and those who hold intercourse with heaven. No interference of the laity ever interrupts the regulated duties of the clergy, yet it does not appear that the first are interdicted the study of any books held sacred by the Lamas. The ritual or ceremonial worship ap-

pears to differ materially from that of the Brahminical Hindoos; and from many of their prejudices, especially such as relate to the perplexing distinctions of caste, the natives of Tibet are wholly exempt. With the latter religion is all system and order. A sovereign Lama, immaculate, immortal, omnipresent, and omniscient, is placed at the summit of their fabric; the Hindoos, on the contrary, acknowledge no individual supreme authority. The Lama is esteemed the vicegerent of the deity, and he is also the centre of the civil government, which derives from his sanctity its chief influence and power. A regular gradation is also observed, from the grand Lama through the whole order of gylongs or monks to the youngest noviciate.

The dress of the religious orders in this quarter of Asia is the regular habit of every attendant at court. It consists of a vest of woollen cloth, with sleeves of a deep garnet colour, and a large mantle either of the same or of a thinner texture, resembling a shawl, a sort of philibeg or kelt, and huge boots of bulgar hides, lined either with fur or cloth, complete their habiliments. The priests of the two sects are distinguished from each other by their dress, the red and the yellow cap; but the last is reckoned the most orthodox, having among its adherents the emperor of China. The grand or Dalai Lama of Lassa, the Teshoo Lama, and the Taranath Lama, preside as pontiffs over the yellow, which sect, as may be supposed, prevails over a large portion of Tibet. In like manner three Lamas preside over the red division, *viz.* Lam Rimbochay, Lam Nawangmamgbi, and Lam Ghassatoo. These have their residence in Bootan, in separate monasteries; the principal of the red class in Tibet resides at Sakia. The president of a monastery is always styled Lama. Their religious buildings and monasteries are all adorned at each angle with the head of a lion, having bells hanging from his lower jaw, and the same ornament is equally conspicuous at every projection of the palace wall; yet the animal is not a native of the country.

According to Abdul Russool, the next person in rank at Lassa to the grand Lama is the raja, who is also termed the naib or deputy, and is the functionary who administers the temporal affairs of the Lama's dominions. This officer is also considered a being of mysterious origin, undergoing transmigrations similar to those of the supreme pontiff, and having his identity established by a similar process. Holding a character distinct from the sacerdotal, he may be regarded as the civil ruler of the state, limited on one hand by the influence of the Chinese tazin (or great man), and on the other by the permanent laws of the realm. It has been stated above that all political negociations with foreign powers come under the immediate cognizance of the grand Lama; but during the interregna occasioned by his frequent transmigrations, the conducting of these affairs, so far as concerns the local government of Tibet, devolves on the raja, next to whom in rank and authority is the council of the four shubbehs or viziers, which indeed may be considered the efficient government as far as refers to domestic affairs. The members are always native Tibetians, and when a vacancy occurs it is filled up by the raja in conjunction with the three surviving viziers; but the appointment must also be sanctioned by the Chinese tazin, and finally ratified by the emperor, with whom in reality it rests. Each vizier receives in virtue of his office a considerable jaghire from the Lama, besides a salary from the Chinese government, equal to about 1,500 rupees per annum, paid partly in silver and partly in cocheen silk. In A.D. 1816 the three existing viziers were Doorang Shubbeh, Shutteh Shubbeh, and Bangashar Shubbeh.

The gradation of the officers composing the local government of Tibet are the following: 1st. the raja; 2d. the council of the four shubbehs;

3d. two sheodebs, one for the country, and the other for the capital; 4th. the phompoms or officers of the exchequer; 5th. the bukhsy or commander of the army; 6th. the cutwal or chief police magistrate of the capital; 7th. the zoongpoons, who are magistrates, collectors of the revenue, and principal officers of the police similar to the tannadars of the British districts. These last are fixed at stations about thirty or forty miles from each other, and have establishments under them of fifteen men armed with swords and matchlocks; but there does not appear to be any regular establishment of preventive police throughout Tibet, nor indeed are criminal offences of such frequent occurrence as to call for it. To guard against petty thefts and burglaries, all ranks are enjoined to keep large and active dogs resembling the Nepaul mastiffs. The sheodebs above-mentioned appear to be judges of appeal in the civil and criminal departments. In extraordinary cases appeals are permitted to the court of the four viziers, to the raja, and finally to the Chinese tazin.

The written laws of Tibet are said to be of great antiquity, and to have a strong analogy to those of China, according to which in recent times they have certainly been modified. Robbery or dacoity is usually punished by perpetual banishment, except when attended with murder, in which case death is inflicted on the delinquent. Adultery is not classed among criminal offences, nor is its perpetration said to excite any irascible feelings in the minds of this torpid people. With respect to matrimony, a custom prevails in Tibet at once different from the modes of Europe, where one female becomes the wife of one man, and the opposite practice prevalent over the greater part of Asia, where one male exercises an uncontrolled despotism over many females. Here a custom still more preposterous is found, that of polyandria, one female associating with all the brothers of a family, without any restriction of age or numbers, the choice of the wife being the exclusive privilege of the elder brother. This arrangement differs considerably from the Nair customs on the coast of Malabar, but a similar practice is said to be followed by the bearer caste in the province of Orissa. In the ceremony of marriage the priests of Tibet have no share whatever, it being ratified and completed without their interference. The officers of state, as well as those who aspire to such distinctions, deem it a business ill suited with their dignities and duties to attend to the propagation of the species, which they entirely abandon to mere plebeians.

It is a general belief in Tibet that the arts and sciences had their origin in the holy city of Benares, which the inhabitants have been taught to consider as the source of both learning and religion; the Company's old provinces are consequently held in high estimation. The Gangetic provinces are called Anakhenk or Anonkhenk, and by the Tartars Enacac, which appellation has been extended so as to comprehend all India. It is asserted that the art of printing, that engine of good and evil, has from a very remote period been practised in Tibet, but so limited in its use by the influence of superstition, that not the slightest improvement has ever taken place. Copies of religious works are multiplied, not by moveable types, but by means of set forms in the nature of stereotype, which they impress on thin slips of paper of their own fabrication. The letters run from the left hand to the right, as in Europe. The printed and written character appropriated to works of learning and religion is styled in the language of Tibet the uchin; that of business and correspondence the umim. Their alphabet and character they acknowledge to be derived from the Sanscrit. When visited by Captain Turner in 1783 they were found acquainted with the existence of the satellites of Jupiter and the ring of Saturn.

According to tradition the ancient

promulgators of their faith proceeded from Benares, and after having advanced to the east over the empire of China, are said to have directed their course towards Europe. The funeral ceremonies performed by the Calmucks near the river Wolga in Russia, on the decease of their chief Lama, are nearly the same with those that take place at the funeral of a gylong in Bootan, on the borders of Bengal, which shows the prodigious diffusion of the Lama religion and Hindoo system. Their own instruction in science and religion the Tibetians refer to a period long prior to the existence of either in Europe; but Sir William Jones considered them as Hindoos who had engrafted the heresies of Buddha on their own mythological religion. The principal idol in their temples is Mahamuni, the Buddha of Hindostan, who is worshipped throughout the vast Tartarian plains under an infinite variety of names. Durga, Cali, Ganesa with his elephant head, Cartikeya (the Hindoo Mars), with many other Brahminical deities, have also a place in the pantheon of Tibet. The same places of popular esteem or religious resort are equally respected in Tibet and Bengal, Allahabad, Benares, Durjodun, Gaya, Saugor island, and Juggernauth being objects of devout pilgrimage; but the two last are deemed of pre-eminent sanctity, while Gaya, the birth-place of their great legislator, is only of secondary rank. Those who are unable to perform the pilgrimages in person, acquire a considerable degree of merit by having it performed by proxy. Within their own limits, the peak of Chumalari, probably the loftiest of the Himalaya, is greatly venerated both by the Buddhists and Brahminical Hindoos, who resort there as votaries to pay their adoration on its snow-clad summit. No satisfactory explanation has ever been given of the peculiar sanctity ascribed to this mountain; but it may be observed in general, that every singular phenomenon in nature becomes an object of worship to the Hindoos, whether it be a snowy mountain, a hot well, the source or conflux of a river, a lake, or a volcano.

The inhabitants of Tibet, differing from most other nations (with the exception of the Lamas), either totally neglect the bodies of their dead, or treat them in a manner that appears highly barbarous. The inferior Lamas are consumed by fire, and their ashes deposited in little metallic idols, but common subjects are treated with much less ceremony. Some are carried to lofty eminences, where after having been disjointed, and the limbs divided, they are left a prey to ravens, kites, and other carnivorous birds; but in the more populous tracts the dogs also participate in the repast.

In a region so extended as Tibet it is probable there exists a great variety of local manners, customs, and dialects; but only a small portion due north of Bootan having ever been penetrated to any depth by Europeans, the following remarks may be considered as chiefly applicable to this quarter. By Abdul Russool, who long resided among them, the subjects of the grand Lama are represented as an industrious, contented, mild race of men, sluggish in their intellect, and phlegmatic in their amorous propensities. A genuine Tibetian begins his day with the performance of a short worship at a public temple, every village possessing one, after which he pursues his peculiar occupation until the evening, which is devoted to recreation. Dancing is a favourite amusement, and is performed by all ranks and degrees, there being no professional dancers as in Hindostan. Infanticide, so much practised in China, is said to be unknown here: yet it is well ascertained that female infanticide is not unusual amongst the Bhooteas of the Himalaya. Marriage takes place about the age of twenty or twenty-two, and is usually arranged by the parents of the parties, the female bringing a dower. Abdul Russool asserts that the custom of one woman becoming the wife of all the brothers

still prevails in Tibet, in which he agrees with Captain Turner and other travellers, who seems satisfied of the fact, without endeavouring to explain what becomes of the redundant females. The original object of this disgusting practice was probably, in part, to prevent too rapid an increase of population in a barren land, and it has been falling into disuse about Lassa since the Chinese became predominant; but it must also be ascribed to the torpid habits and phlegmatic constitutions of the native Bhooteas and Tibetians, aggravated considerably by the multiplicity of their superstitious observances. Conjugal fidelity is consequently held in small estimation, a female being allowed to transfer her person and affections from one man to another without incurring the least reproach for making the first advances. Inheritance descends from the father to the oldest son, and in default of male issue, to the oldest brother or his sons; but should the deceased leave no sons, brothers, or brothers' sons, the property devolves to the wife and her daughters.

The natives of Tibet are accustomed to very warm clothing, the dress of the lower classes in summer being woollens of an inferior description, and in winter sheep or foxes skins, cured with the wool and fur on. About Lassa the joobhas or loose upper garments, and the trowsers of the higher classes, are made of European broad-cloth, Chinese satin, cocheen silk, and Hindostany mushroo or kinhaub. In winter the upper garment of the more affluent are lined with sable furs or otter skins; the poorer classes then wear puttoo cloth of home manufacture, lined with sheep, goat, and jackal skins, and always travelling on level ground, carry a weight of clothing that bids defiance to the most piercing winds. Both here and in Bootan the great men are peculiarly accustomed to travel in the dark. The houses of the peasantry are of a poor construction, and resemble brick-kilns. They are built of rough stones, heaped on each other, with three or four apertures to admit light. The roof is a flat terrace, surrounded by a parapet wall two or three feet high. The chief food of the Tibetians is mutton, with various preparations of barley, mixed with tea and shraub, spirits or beer, and in their repasts they are said to give a uniform preference to undressed crude meat. Of this description mutton is almost their only food, and at their feasts the table is seen spread with raw joints of fresh mutton as well as boiled. The ordinances of their religion forbid their eating fowls, but eggs are an article of ordinary consumption. The higher ranks eat off china-ware, the lower off copper; and each individual about Lassa carries with him a knife and fork of European manufacture imported by the way of China.

The small-pox is a disorder as much dreaded by the natives of Tibet as the plague is in other parts of Asia. When it is known to exist in a village, the healthy hurry off, and leave the infected to chance and the natural course of the distemper. The use of mercury for the cure of the venereal disease appears to have been early introduced, and is administered with considerable skill. The great scarcity of timber not permitting the inhabitants to have boarded floors, they are troubled with cramps and rheumatic pains. On account of the high winds, sandy soil, and glare reflected from the snow and ground, the natives of Tibet are subject to sore eyes, and total loss of sight.

A white scarf is an invariable attendant on every intercourse of ceremony both in Bootan and Tibet. A similar piece of silk is always transmitted under cover with letters, which in England would prove an expensive compliment. This manufacture is of a thin texture, resembling that sort of China stuff called pelong, and is remarkable for the purity of its glossy whiteness. They are commonly damasked, and the sacred words, "*om mani paimi om*" are usually near both ends, which terminate in a fringe.

The origin or meaning of this mode of intercourse has never been ascertained; it is of such moment, however, that the raja of Bootan once returned a letter to the resident at Rungpoor, which he had transmitted from the governor-general, unattended with this bulky incumbrance, to testify its authenticity.

The supreme control of the eastern provinces subordinate to the Chinese is vested in the deba, tazin or viceroy of Oochong (Lassa), and the deba of Gurdon possesses considerable power; but employments and honours are open to all classes of the people, there being no castes or privileged classes in Tibet. In 1816 an instance occured when an ironsmith was promoted from the anvil to the situation of shubbeh, or vizier of the great council. Wherever a deba resides a Lama is also appointed, the first being the civil and military governor, the last a pontiff, to whom the conducting of spiritual arrangements is delegated; and both authoties are frequently relieved or transferred from one station to another. All foreign merchants and others experience liberal treatment in Tibet, and where there are a considerable number of any particular nation collected, as Nepaulese and Cashmerians, they are permitted to adjust their own peculiar disputes by arbitration. This disposition to liberality, however, has in modern times been greatly counteracted by the proverbial jealousy of their Chinese superiors, who view all strangers, especially Europeans, and of all Europeans the British, with singular horror and suspicion. Neither does the sterile soil and rigid climate of Tibet present any attractions, for it at once restrains population within the narrowest bounds, and by the absence of exportable productions, prevents the extension of commerce; indeed, the state of affairs is exactly such as might be expected in a country governed by a sluggish hierarchy, entirely dependent for protection on a foreign and very distant government.

With the exception of one gold mine, according to Abdul Russool, the revenue of the state is wholly derived from land rent, which is fixed in its amount by the unalterable records of the country, where the sum due by each respective estate is particularly specified, and collected agreeably thereto by the zoongpoons deputed from Lassa. The tenures by which land property is held are said greatly to resemble those of Bengal, and may like them be sold and transferred in whatever manner is most agreeable to the proprietor, and when retained descend in hereditary succession. The tenants and cultivators who punctually discharge the legal demands against them can neither be removed or have that demand augmented. The revenue when collected is forwarded to Lassa, where it is deposited with the phompoms or fiscal officers, who, under the control of the viziers, have charge of the general treasury and superintend the state disbursements. There is no regular tribute paid by the Tibet state to the emperors of China, but an inconsiderable present is annually sent him by the grand Lama, who receives one in return of much greater value.

The geographical and chronological knowledge of the Tibetians is so very limited that no accurate information has yet been procured, either of the ancient extent of the kingdom, or of the age of their religious institutions. Their cycle is that of twelve years, and their year is subdivided into twelve months, commencing like the Hindoo Hooly at the vernal equinox. In 1816 the deba of Taclacot informed Captain Webb that 130 years had elapsed since the perfect subjection to China of the provinces adjacent to the British possessions in Northern Hindostan; but there is reason to believe that event took place about A.D. 1720, when the emperor of China acquired the sovereignty of Tibet in the old way, by interfering in the quarrels of two contending parties. On the 5th of July 1780 the Teshoo Lama died in China of the small-pox, in the forty-

seventh year of his age. In December 1783 his successor, although only eighteen months old, and unable to speak, when visited by the British ambassador, conducted himself with astonishing dignity and decorum; such were the effects of early discipline.

The affairs of Tibet continued in a flourishing, or at least tranquil condition, until 1790, when the Gorkhas of Nepaul without provocation commenced hostilities, the first experienced for many years, and invaded Tibet. Their progress was rapid, and being wholly unexpected, they appeared so suddenly before Teshoo Loomboo as scarcely to allow the Lama and his gylongs time to effect their escape, which they did with great difficulty across the Sanpoo river. Having then plundered Teshoo Loomboo of the accumulated contributions of ages, and the tombs of their most valuable ornaments, the Nepaulese troops withdrew to their own country, into which they were pursued by the Chinese, defeated in several actions, and at last forced to sue for peace on most ignominious terms, being compelled to restore all the plunder captured during their expedition, and pay an annual tribute. Since that epocha the Lamas have enjoyed profound peace; but their influence has been much weakened, or rather overpowered, by that of their terrestrial protector, the emperor of China. The year 1816 was a period of the grand or Dalai Lama's disappearance from the earth, the human form which he last animated having ceased to breathe on the 13th of the Persian month Rubbee ul Sanee, in the year of the Hejira 1230, at the age of eleven, after a spiritual and temporal reign of four years.—(*N. Macleod, Abdul Russool, Capt. Turner, Bogle, Moorcroft, Rennell, F. Buchanan, Klaproth, &c.*)

TIBET, LITTLE.—See LAHDACK.

TICAO ISLE *(or St. Hyacintho)*.—A small island, one of the Philippines, situated due south of the large island of Luzon; lat. 12° 30′ N., lon. 123° 40′ E. In length it may be estimated at twenty-eight miles, by seven the average breadth. Here the galleon used to take in water and provisions before her usual departure for Acapulco.

TICKARY.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, fifty miles S.W. from Patna; lat. 24° 58′ N., lon. 84° 50′ E. Tickary is only remarkable as being the residence of Raja Mitrajeet, one of the very few remaining wealthy zemindars in the Company's old provinces, and what is still more unusual, one of the very few possessing common sense. The soil of his estate is in general poor, and requires much artificial watering; yet in 1811 his clear income was estimated at £40,000 per annum; an immense sum in this cheap country. The fort has a substantial earthen rampart, with bastions fit for guns, and a good wet ditch. Within this is the raja's house, a large pile of building, surrounded by the usual native appendages of gateways, gardens, tanks, fountains, and pavilions, besides a well-built circus and busy market-place close to the premises.

The Mahomedans in the Bahar district occasionally make converts of pagans, especially by the purchase of slaves, who are treated with great kindness; but this mode of conversion goes on much more slowly than formerly, when the Mahomedans possessed the government and an enormous income, a great part of which was dissipated on this pecuniary method of propagating their faith. Still, however, there is reason to believe that within these thirty or forty years a considerable increase in the number of the faithful has taken place. By the mere exertion of fakeers, missionaries, or religious mendicants, very little has been or can be done, but by the simple processes of purchasing and procreation, any religion might in a reasonable time be extended without giving offence, a very large portion of the nominal Hindoo natives being considered by

the spiritual directors now in the country as not worth admission into their flocks.

A conversion of this description in a temporal view would be evidently disadvantageous, and in a spiritual sense the methods above alluded to could not with propriety be adopted. The plan, however, has succeeded perfectly well with the Mahomedans, probably more than one-half of the sect having an intermixture of Hindoo blood. So far are the Hindoos from objecting to this mode of propagating a religion, that Raja Mitrajeet of Tickary, a Brahmin, having had a son by a Mahomedan woman, bred him up in that faith, and in 1809 was expected to leave him a large proportion of his vast estates. If it be asked why a Brahmin did not lose caste by such an action, the reply is easy, that a man possessing Raja Mitrajeet's wealth and power cannot lose caste, for the priests would never dream of committing so uncourtly an action.

The Tickary rajas are military Brahmins, chiefs of the Domkatar tribe, and until lately lived in obscurity. Beer Sah was the first person who obtained a small zemindary, about the time the Mogul government began to decline. His son Soonder, by his talents in turbulent times, for which he was qualified, obtained a still larger estate. He lived, as was then customary, seizing on all lands within his reach, plundering such as would not join his standard, and paying nothing to government unless when compelled by an army. Having been assassinated, he was succeeded by Buniyad, who, promising obedience to the English, was decoyed to Patna by Cossim Ali, and put to death, after which his wife was delivered of a posthumous son, the present Raja Mitrajeet. Cossim Ali sent a party to destroy the infant, who was concealed in a basket of cow-dung and preserved. After the battle of Buxar he emerged from his concealment, and has ever since shewn great attachment to the British government. Being a prudent man, besides his purchases of land he has accumulated much wealth, occasionally making a great display, but in private like all Hindoos, frugal and penurious.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

TIDORE:—One of the Molucca isles, about twenty-one miles in circumference, situated on the west coast of Gilolo, three leagues south from Ternate; lat. 0° 45′ N., lon. 127° 25′ E. Both of these islands are remarkably well watered by streams from their respective peaks, which are usually cloud-capped. Tidore is populous, and formerly contained twenty-five mosques. The sultan also was a potentate of considerable consequence in this part of the world, as he possessed a great part of Gilolo to the south and east, the chief towns being Maba, Weda, and Patany; and besides claimed sovereignty over Wageeoo, Mysol, and Battanta. In point of fact, however, he was completely subject to the Dutch, who raised and deposed sultans as best suited their commercial speculations.

On the 8th November 1521 Juan Carvalho, one of the surviving companions of Magellan, arrived at Tidore, and was well received by its chief, who granted him a factory for the purpose of collecting cloves and other spices. On the 21st December he loaded two ships with spices for Spain. Gonzalo Gomez de Espinoza commanded the Trinidad, and it was his intention to proceed to Panama in Mexico, but he was captured by the Portuguese. Sebastian del Cano went in the Victoria by the Cape of Good Hope, and after having lost many of his crew during the voyage, arrived at St. Lucas on the 7th September 1522 with only eighteen men, three years from the date of their departure from Seville, having thus performed the first circumnavigation of the globe.

In 1526 a second Spanish squadron arrived at Tidore, where they found the Portuguese had declared war against the chief on account of the

succour he had afforded to the squadron of Magellan. Hostilities then commenced between the two nations, and continued with varied success until 1529. The Spaniards alleged that these islands were within the Pope's line of demarcation, which was the fact; but the Portuguese were unwilling to relinquish so profitable a trade. About this period these differences were adjusted, the Emperor Charles the Fifth renouncing his right, such as it was, to the Moluccas for the consideration of 350,000 ducats, advanced to him as a loan by the king of Portugal.

In 1579 Drake, the famous circumnavigator, arrived at Tidore, and began to gather spices without the permission of the king, who was at first greatly incensed; but being afterwards by presents conciliated, his rage abated. In 1613 the Dutch captured all the Portuguese settlements on this island and on Solor.

In 1808 Mahomed Zein ul Abdeen, the sultan of Tidore, applied by letter to the Bengal government, soliciting a supply of ordnance stores and ammunition to enable him to resist the Dutch, by whom his dominions had been recently conquered and ravaged, and himself, family, and dependents compelled to fly to Papua. From this asylum he was soon afterwards transported with his family, by Captain Greig of the bark Lord Minto, to Ossoon, on the east side of Gilolo, where a considerable number of his most attached followers had asssembled. In consequence of these circumstances the Bengal government forwarded to the sultan different stores to the value of 18,000 rupees, on the arrival of which he attacked the Dutch and Ternatese, and recovered his authority in the Moluccas, and land of Maba on the island of Gilolo.—(*Zuniga, Forrest, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

TILGUNNA.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on the high road to Rewah, about 26 miles travelling distance S. by W. from Allahabad city.

TIJILENKING.—A large Malay village in the island of Java, situated about five leagues east from Batavia.

TILLORE.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunna of Indore, which in 1820 belonged to Holcar, and contained about 300 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

TILOKPOOR.—A town in the province of Lahore, twenty miles west from Kangra, lat. 31° 35′ N., lon. 76° 0′ E.

TILYN.—A Burmese stockade in Cachar, the head-quarters of their army, to which, in 1824, a British fleet of boats, with troops, ascended, combined with those of Gumbheer Singh. The attack, however, was repulsed with considerable loss; but subsequently, in consequence of the landing of Sir Archibald Campbell at Rangoon, the Burmese abandoned the station and province.

TIMERYCOTTA.—A town in the northern circars, district of Guntoor, 77 miles W. by N. from the town of Guntoor, lat. 16° 35′ N., lon. 79° 25′ E. Six miles west of Timerycotta, a cataract is formed during the rainy season by the river Yedlapadu, which in the opposite season is perfectly dry. The water falls from a height of about sixty feet, into a basin 120 feet in breadth, ornamented with several Hindoo places of worship. The great elevation from which this water is projected would, under proper management, greatly assist irrigation.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

TIMAAN ISLE.—A very small island, situated off the east coast of the Malay peninsula, lat. 2° 52′ N., long. 104° 5′ E. This island is high and woody, and has several others still smaller, lying off it to the westward. Vessels bound to India, through the straits of Malacca, may go within the islands of Timaan, Pesang, Aor, Pulo Tingy and the main.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

TIMOR *(east)*.—A large island in the Eastern seas, intersected by the ninth degree of south lat., and ex-

tending obliquely in a north-east and south-west direction. In length it may be estimated at 250 miles by forty the average breadth. The chiefs of Semao, Rotto, Savu, Kesser, and Roma isles, are also subordinate to the Dutch factory at Coopang.

Timor is a hilly country, but does not contain any volcanoes. The elevation of some parts as seen from the sea, Captain Flinders thought not much inferior to the peak of Teneriffe. The rivers are small, and not navigable beyond the influence of the tides, which rarely exceeds a mile, the rise and fall being about nine feet. The south-west point is surrounded by a reef from half a mile to a mile off, and runs for some distance up the straits, both sides of which are low lands, but the water is nevertheless very deep. The width of the entrance is three miles and a half, with a depth of thirty-six fathoms; nor are there any dangers except the reef above mentioned. The interior is a ridge of mountains of great height, while the shores on the south side are low and over-run with mangroves.

A large supply of sandal-wood is annually procured from hence; but in quality is reckoned inferior to that of Malabar. The most highly perfumed wood is found near the root. About 10,000 cwt. are annually exported, in the first instance to Java, but ultimately to China. Gold is found in several of the Timor rivers, both in lumps and grains; but the aborigines are said to have a strong aversion to search for, or even to touch it, and many years ago massacred a party of Dutch sent inland to collect the precious metal. Copper abounds in the Philaran hills, but no iron has as yet been discovered. The Dutch and Portuguese between them claim the whole sovereignty of the island. Fort Concordia is the capital of the first and Delli of the last, but their respective boundaries are ill-defined, and some of the native chiefs disclaim all subordination. It is, however, admitted that the whole coast east of Delli belongs to the Portuguese, and the whole of the south coast to the Dutch; on the north-west coast their possessions are intermingled.

The natives are mostly of a dark colour, with frizzled bushy hair, but approaching less to the Papuan negro than the natives of Endé. They are below middle size, slight in their persons, and more resemble the South-sea islanders than the Malays. In the interior they are subdivided into small communities, governed by chiefs, who exercise all the powers of sovereignty over the lower classes; near the European settlements the respective residents administer justice. The religion of the country is Pagan, but most of the chiefs prefer Christianity, retaining at the same time their ethnic priests, customs, and superstitions, It is said, that so late as 1820 there was not one genuine native convert to Mahomedanism on the whole island, nor was there any trace of Hindooism. Their deities are particular stones and trees, the supposed representatives of evil spirits, whom they worship to escape harm, conceiving they run no risk of annoyance from good spirits.

Their domestic quadrupeds are buffaloes, horses, sheep, goats, hogs, dogs, cats, deer, monkeys, &c. They cultivate rice, maize, millet, kachang, yams, sweet potatoes, and cotton; but maize is the staple article of food, together with the sugar of the lontar palm, and a species of sago. The use of the plough is unknown, a wooden spade and sharp pointed stick being their agricultural instruments. In some cases they have wet land trampled to a proper consistence by buffaloes. Coco-nuts and the areca palm are scarce, but the lontar palm abounds. A little sugar-cane is planted, but not for the purpose of making sugar. Fish abound on the coast, but the natives are afraid of the sea, and seldom venture into a canoe.

Their arms are bad muskets, and spears of iron and bamboo. In 1820, a rebel chief, named by the Dutch, the keyser or emperor of

Amanoobang, had about 2,000 men trained to fight on horseback. The population is but thinly scattered over the island, and except those built by Europeans, it cannot be said to contain any towns. In 1820, the imports consisted of coarse blue and white clothes, chintses of a large pattern, glaring red handkerchiefs, china silks of coarse and gaudy patterns, payongs, muskets and gunpowder, iron, coarse cutlery, Macassar purangs and lead. The exports were sandal-wood, earth oil and wax. Many whalers put in at Coopang and Delli, to trade and procure refreshments.—(*Maldy Miscellanies, Flinders, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Timor Laut—An island in the Eastern seas situated between the seventh and eight degrees of south latitude, and the 132d and 133d of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at seventy miles by twenty-five, the average breadth. Except its dimensions and geographical situation, nothing further is known respecting it.

Tinnevelly (*Trinavali, one of Vishnu's names.*).—A district in the Southern Carnatic, situated between the eighth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and occupying the south-eastern extremity of what is usually termed the peninsula. To the north it is bounded by the collectorate of Madura, on the south-east it is separated from the island of Ceylon by the gulf of Manaar; and on the west is bounded by Travancore, from which it is separated by a high ridge of woody mountains of extremely difficult access. Generally speaking, however, Tinnevelly may be called an open country, as it contains few hills, and those insulated and detached; but it comprehends several tracts of waste and jungle, especially towards the east, in the neighbourhood of Tuticorin. In the Punjmahal and Calacaud divisions there are numerous palmira trees, growing in a sandy soil, and interspersed with dry grain cultivation. The elevation of the land above the sea increases as the country recedes from the gulf of Manaar; but the district on the whole is considerably lower than the adjoining ones. The principal rivers are the Tambarapurni and Sylaur. The first rises from the Travancore ghauts, lat. 8° 35′ N.; and about twelve miles from its source forms the cataract of Pampamassum; after which, traversing a rich and cultivated country, it passes Palamcotta within a mile north, and proceeds towards the sea, into which it falls at Permacoil, having been previously joined by the Sylaur.

The Sylaur river rises in the hills immediately north of Pooliery, at the eastern opening of the Ariangawel pass; soon after which it is united with several rivulets, the most remarkable being that which creates by its falls the cataracts of Courtallum, in lat. 8° 56′ N. This last-mentioned stream issues among the mountains that compose the southern side of a kind of recess formed by the retiring of the great ghauts, and which is noted for the singularity of its climate. This recess is above twenty miles in width, and its greatest opening through the Ariangawel pass into the Travancore province about half as much, the pass itself being very narrow, and about ten miles in length. The recess has of late years been tolerably cultivated, and from the loftiness of the hills the scenery is grand and picturesque, resembling certain romantic spots in Switzerland. Towards Cape Comorin there is another pass into Travancore, known as the Arumboolic pass, about two miles in width, and as much in length, the eastern opening of which lies exactly in the meridian of the cape, at the distance of twelve miles.

Towards the southern and eastern extremity of the coast there are many salt marshes, the largest being situated in Colsailpatnam and Vesiaputty in Calacaud. These marshes were formerly distinct and separate, but owing to some inundations about twenty years ago, four of them were united. They are divided from the sea by high sand-hills, have not any

natural communications with it, and lie at unequal distances of from four to thirteen miles. Since the heavy monsoon of 1810 they have been filled to the depth of from five to ten feet, and the stagnant water, by its long continuance, has done infinite mischief by flooding the villages and cultivated lands.

The climate of the northern portion of the Tinnevelly district greatly resembles that of Madura, but there is a considerable difference towards the centre, and along the fertile banks of the Tambarapurni. The northern monsoon seldom reaches these quarters before the end of November, and generally is not so heavy as in the central Carnatic. In common seasons the rains are over about the end of December, about which period the thermometer falls below 70° at sunrise. This district has one peculiarity of climate, which is, that a fall of rain is always expected late in January, sufficient in quantity to raise the rivers and replenish the tanks. In March the thermometer ascends to 94°. The cool retreats of Tinnevelly are Courtallum, already mentioned, and Trichendore; the climate of the first being particularly gratifying to the feelings of an European early in June, immediately after the heavy Malabar rains have commenced. The difference of the thermometer between Palamcotta and Courtallum is usually about ten degrees, the first being much the hottest. With respect to this happy valley (Courtallum) it is a singular fact, that even while the rains daily pour down, and the sky is overcast, there is no sensation within doors of damp, as there is in the Carnatic during the north-east monsoon, and razors and other steel instruments remain for a long time without rusting. Another circumstance greatly assists the convalescence of individuals, which is a small cataract, projected from a rock, under which Europeans bathe, and derive great benefit from its invigorating effects. The average temperature of the water at this fall is from 72° to 75° of Fahrenheit. The greatest height of the lowest fall of a cataract here is nearly 200 feet; and at no great distance there is a beautiful pagoda dedicated to Siva.

Although, as may be inferred from the above description, the climate of Courtallum is very delightful during the months of June, July, August, and September, it is far otherwise during those of February, March, April, and May, partaking as it does of both monsoons. Being deprived of the salutary influence of the southerly winds, filled with luxuriant vegetation, and unventilated during the last-mentioned four months, the climate becomes close and sultry, and generates an endemic fever similar to that experienced on the Senegal and Gambia. Trichendore is a place on the sea-side about thirty miles east of Palamcotta, and is resorted to during the months of March and April, for the benefit of the sea breeze and change of air, but in both these respects it is inferior to Moolapetty. In respect to climate, generally, Tinnevelly has many advantages. The north-east monsoon is mild; in March, April, and May, the unpleasant months of the year, the sea is at hand; and in June, July, and August, Courtallum affords a refuge to invalids.

The chief productions of this district are rice and cotton; the last of a superior quality, and amounting to 34,000 cawnies annually. But the same land cannot be put under cotton two successive seasons; one year's fallow must intervene, although the soil and climate are both favourable. Many fruits, roots, and greens are produced, but some of the most common Carnatic pulses are wanting, and during unfavourable seasons rice is imported from Travancore. Prior to the French revolution, when Ceylon and the Eastern islands were possessed by the Dutch, it was considered of importance to establish spice plantations in Tinnevelly. Cinnamon and other spice plants were accordingly procured, at a great expense, and planted in gardens rais-

ed among the hills, which in 1814 yielded as follows:

	Trees.
Cinnamon	110,557
Nutmegs in the shell...	545
Coffee.....	25,253
	lbs.
Cinnamon in store.....	1,394
Nutmegs ditto	4,391
Coffee ditto	603

Few of the nutmeg trees had then attained their full growth, but they were generally flourishing and healthy. The cinnamon plants also appeared to thrive, and although inferior in quality to those produced at Columbo, the bark would still have been valuable, had not Great Britain acquired Ceylon in perpetuity.

The chief towns in size and population are Tinnevelly, Alvartinevelly, Shermadevy, and Culdacourchy. The Mahomedans are very few, and the primitive Hindoo manners and customs are scarcely any where seen in greater purity. Apparently, the lapse of twenty centuries has made no change whatever. The Coillery tribe, on the western frontier, present nothing of the ugliness and deformity which generally characterize natives of the hills and wilds of Hindostan: on the contrary, they are tall, well-made and featured, and of a martial disposition. The present inhabitants of Tinnevelly seem to live in a style of superior comfort to those of the neighbouring districts, and in 1822, according to the returns of the collectors, were estimated at 564,947 persons. Their dwellings are mostly well raised and constructed, especially in the towns adjacent to the Tambarapurni, where tiled houses, and wide clean and regular streets are seen. In the northern and western tracts of the Shevelpatore estate the dwellings are of a very inferior description, ill-placed, damp, and unhealthy, concealing a gaunt, meagre, ill-looking race.

In times of remote Hindoo antiquity this district formed part of the great Pandian empire, the capital of which was Tanjore. During the early Carnatic wars, from 1740 to 1760, it swarmed with independent poligars, distinguished by uncouth names, such as the Pullitaver, Nubbeekhan, Cutteck, Catabominaigue, and Panialumcrutch, in a state of perpetual hostility, each having his fort or den, situated among the woods and fastnesses which then almost covered three-fourths of the country. At that period, in conjunction with Madura, Tinnevelly was farmed for eleven lacks of rupees; and low as was the assessment, it generally ruined the farmer from the difficulty of collection. In this disorderly state it continued until 1792, from which date the Madras presidency collected the tribute; but until very lately, the poligars of many of the smallest tracts of country exercised not only civil but criminal jurisdiction, the services as well as the lives of their subjects being at their disposal.—When the war with Tippoo commenced in 1799, and the Madras army was actively employed in his dominions, a formidable insurrection broke out among the southern pollams of Tinnevelly, for the quelling of which a body of troops was marched into the country. This occasion was embraced for disarming the poligars, demolishing their forts and strong-holds, and reducing them immediately under the civil authority of the Company. In 1801 a second insurrection took place among the southern pollams, which was considered to be connected with another in the Dindigul and Malabar countries, but the whole were effectually subdued. In this manner, by the energy of government and the extinction of a divided authority, one of the finest districts of Hindostan was converted from a state of anarchy and confusion to one of subordination and prosperity.

The chief part of the revenue of Tinnevelly arises from the wet lands, which yield two crops in the year.—The system under which the revenue was realized during the government of the nabobs of the Carnatic, and at first with very little improvement

under the British, was that of all others the most liable to abuse.—The government and the cultivators shared the crop according to a valuation of the harvest made by persons appointed for the purpose, when the season was so far advanced as to admit of a probable estimate being formed. After the crop was reaped the servants of government received the sovereign's share, which, if less than the estimate, was made up by the farmer; if more, the surplus was equally divided. The next operation was to determine what proportion of the government grain should be received in money, or rather how much of it should be delivered to certain of the principal inhabitants to sell on government account. Two-fifths of the government proportion were in this manner generally made over to the inhabitants at a price regulated by circumstances; the remaining three-fifths were stored up by the public functionaries. It was consequently the policy of the native ruler, to increase his revenue by monopolizing the grain and enhancing its price, without regard to the ultimate amelioration of the country; but it was consistent with British policy to endeavour to abolish the monopoly, and transmute the rent in kind to a money rent.

It is evident that the native system had innumerable disadvantages, and tended to deteriorate both the morals and agriculture of the province. It held out encouragement to no industry but that exerted to defraud government; and by converting the character of the sovereign into that of a merchant, it forced the government to monopolize the food of the people to secure its revenue. The abolition of a system so replete with inconvenience had long been a primary object with the British authorities, but so many obstacles and impediments intervened, from the prejudices and habits of the natives, that it was not until 1809 that a transition to a money rent could be accomplished. The inhabitants liked the old system because it was old; because it held out a specious appearance of proportioning the sovereign's demand to the produce of the season; because their apathy led them to prefer subsistence unattended with the responsibility of converting their grain into money to profit accompanied by risk and exertion; and lastly, because the system presented a wide field of embezzlement wherein to exercise their exertion and ingenuity. Indeed, in all countries the great mass of the people are the last to recognize the advantages resulting from the application of principles which, notwithstanding their justness, do not happen to be perfectly obvious.

Under the old system government nearly monopolized all the grain, because its share was withheld until the farmers had consumed theirs, when government grain was issued to the inhabitants; and the sovereign having thus become the great corn-factor of the country, derived his revenue from a monopoly of the grain instead of a rent from the land. Under such an arrangement the resources of the country could not be developed nor industry be properly exerted; although the revenue might have borne a large proportion to the land cultivated and to the labour put in motion, not to mention the enormous balances annually left outstanding. For it is not by a comparison of the gross sum exhibited in a land tax, that the merits of a settlement are to be appreciated, but by the net sum remaining in the treasury as an available resource for the general exigencies of the state. Although a transition from a grain to a money rent could not be effected without some diminution of the gross revenue, yet this apparent decrease was counterbalanced by a diminution of charges, and by a general improvement of the resources of the country, from the introduction of a more rational system of collection. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue in Tinnevelly amounted to 5,64,131 star pagodas.—(*Hepburn, Public MS. Documents, Medical Reports, Fifth Report, Orme, &c.*)

TINNEVELLY. — A town in the southern Carnatic, the capital of the preceding district, fifty-nine miles N.N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 48′ N., lon. 78° 1′ E. This place is situated about twenty-five miles east of the great mountains, and is large and populous. On three sides it is surrounded by extensive paddy fields, watered from the river, and on the west by dry, high, and rocky ground. —(*Medical Reports, &c.*)

TINGRI.—A fortress in eastern Tibet, situated in the Tingri plain, which according to Abdul Russool had two pieces of cannon and a garrison of 200 soldiers. The adjacent village contained only forty houses, although it lies on the main road from Catmandoo to Lassa, and is a station where supplies of horses may be procured. From hence to Teshoo Loomboo the road is level, and it was by this route that the Gorkha troops marched when they invaded Tibet, and plundered Teshoo Loomboo, in 1792.

The favourite abode of the chiroo, or Bhotea antelope, or supposed unicorn of the Himalaya, is the Tingri Meidan, a fine plain or valley through which the Arun flows, and which is situated immediately beyond the snows by the Koote pass. In this valley beds of salt are said to abound, to which the chiroos resort. —(*Abdul Russool, Mr. Hodgson, &c.*)

TIPERA (*Tripura*).—A large district in the province of Bengal, situated principally between the twenty-second and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Silhet and Dacca Jelalpoor; on the south by Chittagong and the sea; to the east it is separated by hills and deep forests from the Burmese dominions; and on the west it has the great river Megna and the district of Dacca Jelalpoor.

The Tipera district, also named Roushenabad, is the chief eastern boundary of Bengal, and of very large dimensions. In 1784 it was estimated to contain 6,618 square miles, but various lands have since been added, and its eastern limits are not yet accurately defined. Towards this quarter the country is extremely wild and overgrown with jungle, and abounding with elephants; but the tracts adjacent to the Megna are rich, fertile, and commercial. The distance in a direct line from Comillah to the frontier of Ava Proper, near the river Kienduen, is rather more than 200 geographical miles. The Tipura tribe reach within a few miles of Comillah, and extend above thirty miles to the eastward, while Taunduen, the capital of the Aengiin, subject to Ava, is from twenty to thirty miles in a direct line west from the Kienduen. There is reason to suppose that the intervening space between the Aengiin and Tipura nations will be about 100 geographical miles in breadth. Through this extent no passage is known to exist. It is probably occupied by a mountainous barrier, more rugged than high, at least no hills of very great elevation are visible from the district boundaries.

Towards the east, between the territory of the Tipura race and the central inaccessible mountains, there is a wide hilly region, occupied by a people called Kookies (Kungkis), the Lingaeh of the Burmese, and Lingta of the Bengalese, who appear to be a martial and predatory people. These and other small tribes are the people interposed between Ava and Bengal, from about lat. 24° 25′ N., to lat. 22° 55′ N. The principal river of Tipera is the Goomty, which springs from an unknown source among the eastern hills. It is ascended in February by the wood-cutters, fifty miles above Comillah, being thus far navigable for canoes, with a shallow current and winding course. The low hills through which it flows are intermixed with marshes and jeels, and for many months of the year so pestiferous, as to deter even the Bengalese from entering them.

Both Tipera and Chittagong appear at one period to have belonged to the rajas of the first. They were

early (about A.D. 1279) attacked by the kings of Bengal, who seized large tracts, leaving, however, the Tipera rajas in the possession of large estates, as tributaries, while the more inaccessible parts continued wholly independent, and occupied by the aboriginal inhabitants. The Mahomedans were in their turn worsted by the chiefs of Arracan, who retained possession of Chittagong until the ascendancy of the house of Timour began to operate in this remote quarter, when its conquest was finally effected in 1733. In times still more modern the estates on the plains belonging to the Tipera raja have been, since 1765, subject to the British government; but the Tripura nation or tribe continue to maintain a kind of independent principality among the eastern hills, about thirty miles wide. This people have features entirely resembling the Chinese and Burmese, have their huts built on posts (a marked distinction from the Bengalese), and follow divers impure customs abhorred by the Brahmins. They must consequently be considered as the same race as the more eastern nations, although their princes have adopted Hindoo names and usages; and with respect to the throne follow the system of Malabar, the raja being succeeded, not by his son, but by his nephew. At present the Tripuras seem to be divided into three tribes, named collectively Teura by the Bengalese, and, according to report, all speaking the same language, though varying in character. Maha Raja Rajindra Manick, the reigning chief in 1801, was much addicted to inebriety, and had, through imbecility and mismanagement, so much involved his circumstances, that his zemindary was much reduced in extent.

That portion of the Tipera district adjacent to the course of the Megna, from Daoudcaundy to Luckipoor, is famous for the production of excellent betel-nut, held in such high estimation by the Burmese and Arracaners that they buy up large quantities, and even anticipate the ensuing crops by advances of money. The coarse cotton goods of this country are known all over the world by the names of baftaes and cossaes, and are an excellent, durable and substantial fabric, and are largely exported, both by the Company and by private merchants. The most valuable articles of agricultural produce are cotton, rice, and betel-nut, the cultivation of which and the prosperity of the district generally appear to have been annually increasing. In 1814 the amount of the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, was 11,34,888 rupees, and in 1801 the total population was estimated at 750,000 persons, in the proportion of four Hindoos to three Mahomedans. Along the sea-coast salt is manufactured on government account. In this district there are not any regular schools or seminaries where the Hindoo and Mahomedan laws and religion are taught, and the lower classes of females have the reputation of being much addicted to suicide.

Among the forests of Tipera the gayal is found in a wild state, and the number of elephants annually caught is very considerable; but they are reckoned inferior to those of Chittagong and Pegu. The height of this animal has in general been much exaggerated. In India the height of females is commonly from seven to eight feet; that of males from eight to ten feet, measured at the shoulder, as horses are. The largest ever known, with certainty, belonged to Asoph ud Dowlah, the nabob of Oude, and was taken in 1796; yet his perpendicular height at the shoulder was only ten feet six inches. One belonging to Nusrit Jung, the late nabob of Dacca in 1798, and of a great age, measured ten feet high; and the standard height required by the Bengal government, for elephants purchased for their service, is nine feet. —(*F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Crisp, J. Elliott, &c.*)

TIRAIT.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles N.N.E. from Ditteah; lat. 26° 1′ N., lon. 78° 36′ E.

TIREEPOOR.—A village in the province of Coimbatoor, containing several Hindoo temples, situated about thirty miles travelling distance north by west from Daraporam.

TIRIKITCHCONAM.—A small town in the Carnatic province, district of Chingleput, situated about nine miles travelling distance from the town of Chingleput. At this place there is a magnificent temple dedicated to Mahadeva, with four pyramidical gateways in the usual style of the south of of India. The principal one is about 160 feet high, and near to it is a noble tank faced with masonry. Another small temple devoted to the same deity, stands on the apex of a picturesque rock about 500 feet above the town, and is approached by a flight of steps, mounting in a straight line from the base to the summit. The officiating priests here tell a story of two Brahminy kites, which come every day precisely at noon to feed at this temple, and afterwards fly to Bengal to quench their thirst in the waters of the holy Ganges.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TIRHOOT (*Trihuta*).—A district in the province of Bahar, of which it occupies the north-west corner, and situated principally between the twenty-seventh and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the jungle territory of Saptari, belonging to Nepaul; to the south by the great Ganges. On the east is the Bengal district of Purneah; and on the west the district of Sarun. In 1784, Tirhoot was estimated to contain 5,033 square miles; but since that period it has been variously modified.

Although not hilly, the surface of Tirhoot is more elevated, the soil drier, and the climate in general healthier, than those more to the south, yet during the summer the heat is intense. For agricultural purposes, it is plentifully supplied with water from several small rivers, and where these are wanting, tanks and reservoirs have been constructed. In a particular quarter embankments of considerable strength and elevation are necessary to restrain the waters of the great Gunduck river, which occasionally overflows these dikes and inundates vast tracts of country from Kurnal to Hajypoor, sweeping away whole villages, with all their cattle, inhabitants and woods. Tirhoot is generally well cultivated, but in the north and south extensive wastes are found, contiguous to old zemindaries, which having remained in a state of nature and without occupants for many years, leave the boundaries of these estates undefined, and give rise to frequent affrays and much litigation. Tillage, however, has progressively advanced since the first year of the decennial settlement; much jungle being annually reclaimed and brought under the plough or converted to wholesome pasture. The most valuable exportable commodities produced are sugar, indigo, saltpetre, opium, tobacco, pawn, turmeric, ginger and rice. Towards the northern frontier there are large forests, but no supply of timber deserving of note can be procured, for want of depth in the rivers. Could this be remedied large quantities might be obtained. The principal rivers are the Gunduck (a boundary one), the Bhagmati, and the Goggra. In 1814 the jumma or land assessment to the revenue was 12,34,680, and in 1801, the population was loosely estimated at two millions, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to four Hindoos. The principal towns are Hajypoor, Singhea, Durbunga and Mowah.

The impure saline composition named khari, is manufactured in considerable quanties, not far from the Ganges, about eight miles east of Singhea. The saline earth from which it is made is called rehu, and effloresces in several pergunnahs in the districts of Tirhoot and Sarun, and is scraped together and collected at the surface. It is subsequently procured by burning and lixivation. At present there are not any brick or mud forts, nor is there any species of fortification to be seen, or any remarkable public building, if we except the gaol,

always the most conspicuous ornament of a Bengal district, and generally well populated. In 1811, during Lord Minto's administration, it was proposed in council to establish a Hindoo college at Bhowra in Tirhoot, which had been an ancient hot-bed of Brahminical superstition, upon the plan of the institution at Nuddea on the Hooghly.

On account of its natural advantages of soil and climate, this district was originally selected by the Bengal government as an eligible station for improving the breed of horses, the aboriginal race of horses in that province being of the most contemptible description, feeble, vicious, and scarcely larger than mastiffs. A low marshy soil seems uncongenial to the nature of this noble animal, which here degenerates immediately, while it thrives in arid tracts almost destitute of water. Many horses of the first quality have since been reared about Hajypoor, and horse dealers from Upper Hindostan attend the fairs to make purchases. A considerable number are also annually obtained at the government stud, for mounting the king's and native cavalry, besides those reared by the zemindars and others throughout the country.

Tirabhucti, corrupted to Tirhoot, in the remote ages of Hindoo antiquity was a component part of Maithila, an ancient division of India which comprehended a great proportion of the modern districts of Tirhoot, Sarun, and Purneah, and also part of the adjacent tracts now possessed by the Nepaulese. The limits of the whole were the Gunduck and the Cosa rivers and the Nepaul mountains, and within those territories a distinct language was spoken, still named the Maithila or Trihutya. During the wars of the Ramayuna its sovereign was named Janaca, whose daughter, the far-famed Seeta, espoused the great Rama, whose exploits are narrated in that mythological poem. Tirhoot appears to have continued an independent Hindoo principality until A.D. 1237, when it was invaded by Toghan Khan, the Mahomedan governor of Bengal, who extorted a large sum of money from the raja, but did not retain possession of the country. It was finally subdued about A.D. 1325 by the Emperor Allah ud Deen, who annexed it to the throne of Delhi. Along with the rest of the province it devolved to the British government with the Dewanny in 1765, but was not permanently assessed for the revenue until 1794.—(*J. Grant, Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, Stewart, &c.*)

Tiri.—A station in Northern Hindostan, which in 1817 was the residence of the Gurwal Raja; lat. 30° 23′ N., lon. 78° 28′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea 2,278 feet. At this place the Ganges receives the Bhilling, a considerable river that issues from the snowy chain.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Tirjoogee Narai Temple.—A small temple in Northern Hindostan, thirty miles north by east from Serinagur; lat. 30°39′ N., lon. 78°55′ E.

Tiroon.—A district on the east coast of Borneo, situated between the third and fourth degrees of north latitude. The coast here is all low mangrove land, the mountains being very distant, and inhabited by Idaan. The country abounds with sago-trees, which being the chief sustenance of the natives, they plant annually in great numbers to prevent any deficiency, as a considerable time must elapse before they are fit to cut down. The produce of the country consists principally of sago and birds'-nests, both of which are in great plenty and perfection. It also yields wax, canes, rattans, mats, honey, biche-de-mar, and in some parts gold. In this district there are many rivers the largest, named the Barow or Curan, from different places near it, has about three fathoms of water at the mouth, but there are several shoals which render the assistance of a pilot necessary.

The tribes known by the names of Tiroon and Tedong live chiefly on the north-east coast of Borneo, and are reckoned a savage and piratical race, addicted to cannibalism. Their

language is little known, but is accounted peculiar to the tribe, which is probably a subdivision of the Idaan or Horaforas.—(*Forrest, Dalrymple, Leyden, &c.*)

TIRTAPURI.—A small town in Tibet, perched on the top of a table-land 200 feet high, the residence of a Lama ands everal gylnogs, who dwell in separate houses of rough stone, and lead a pastoral life; lat. 31° 10′ N., lon. 80° 45′ E. This place is overhung by steep craggy lime-stone rocks, insulated pillars of which, having resisted the weather longer than the softer portions, seem ready to tumble on the inhabitants. About two miles to the west are two hot springs of clear water bursting from a calcareous table-rock twelve feet high, and nearly half a mile in diameter, which appears itself to have been formed of the sediment deposited by the spring while cooling, and is as white as stucco. The water as it overflows the little basins forms a great variety of fantastic figures, the calcareous matter being probably supplied by the chalky mountains above Tirtapuri, to the north-west of which, near Misar, gold is found. The low swampy land in the vales yields a grass which is cut and carried for winter hay for the horses of Garpan, Kienlung, Deba, and Dumpu. Nearly opposite to the Lama's house is a broad wall of stone, 150 yards long by four broad, covered with a great number of loose stones, on which prayers have been inscribed by the pilgrims. There are also many small maths (temples) having niches in one side, on which are impressions of Lamas and Hindoo deities in unburned clay; and on some piles of loose stones are figures of Lamas of Narayan (Vishnu), and of Bhasmasur.—(*Moorcroft, &c.*)

TIRUPMEW *(or the Chinese city).*—A town in the kingdom of Ava, situated on the east side of the Irawady, nearly opposite to the junction of that river with the Keenduem; lat. 22° 20′ N., lon. 95° 10′ E. The name is said to have originated in remote times from a victory gained here over the Chinese.—(*Trant, &c.*)

TIRWAN ANGADY *(Tiravana angadi).*—A small Moplay town in the Malabar province, nineteen miles S.S.E. from Calicut; lat. 11° 3′ N., lon. 75° 59′ E. This place stands on the banks of a river that comes from Irnada, and in the rainy season navigable for canoes thirty-two miles further up.

TJERINGHIN.—A considerable fishing village in the island of Java, situated on the east side of the straits of Sunda; lat. 6° 15′ S., lon. 105° 45′ E. To the south-east this is one of the best cultivated districts in Java, but the neighbouring woods and south-western extremity of the island have never been penetrated by any European, and still remain wholly unknown.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

TOBA LAKE.—A great lake in the Batta country in the island of Sumatra, which has not yet been visited by any European. In 1822 it was pointed out from the hills of Silindung, near Tapanooly, to Messrs. Burton and Ward, by their guides, the middle of the lake then bearing in the direction of north-east from the spot where they stood, which would make it probably N.E. from Tapanooly. From the distance at which they placed the extremities at each side of this central point, they estimated the length at sixty or seventy miles, by a breadth of fifteen or twenty miles. The water of this lake was described as being occasionally very rough, so much so as to impede the passage of boats to an island in its middle, where a periodical market is held. A large river and some smaller streams flow into this lake, which being described as rising and falling twice a day, will probably ultimately turn out to be an arm of the sea.—(*Burton and Ward, &c.*)

TOHANA.—A town in the province of Delhi, sixty-five miles west of Kurnal; lat. 29° 42′ N., lon. 75° 57′ E.

Toka.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty-seven miles S.W. from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 25′ N., lon. 75° 10′ E. This place is built on a tongue of land formed by the confluence of the Pera river with the main stream of the Godavery, and though of small extent, and containing only one Hindoo temple, is a place of considerable religious resort. Its spacious and handsome ghauts, descending to the water, combine with its lofty stone houses and fine site, to give it an imposing exterior. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Token Besseys.—A cluster of very small isles in the Eastern seas, situated off the east coast of Booton island; lat. 5° 40′ S., lon. 123° 35′ E. These numerous little isles are each of them surrounded by rocky shoals, between which very rapid currents set strongly to the eastward, and render the navigation hazardous. They are inhabited.—(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

Toling.—A town or station in Tibet, seven miles S.W. from the Sutuleje, the residence of a head Lama, and possessing (it is said) a superb temple; lat. 31° 14′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E.

Tomboro.—A remarkable volcano in the island of Sumbhawa, situated about forty miles W. from the town of Bima. On the 11th April 1815, a noise resembling the firing of guns was heard here, and at other stations between lat. 2° 30′ and 5° 30′ S., such as Saloomah, Manna, Padang Gooche, Moco Moco, Croee, and Semanko Bay. On this day happened the great eruption of the Tomboro volcano, but the distance to these places is so enormous a space for sound to be conveyed over (to Moco Moco in Sumatra, 1,400 miles), that we must suppose some intervening volcanoes were also exploding. That of Goonong Rawoong, near Bangawangy in Java, threw out great eruptions on the 10th and 11th. Even this is 728 miles travelling distance from Batavia, where many reports were heard.

On the 5th April 1815, a firing, as of cannon, was heard at Macassar, 217 nautical miles distant from Tomboro; and on the night of the 11th, the firing was again heard, but much louder, and the resident's house was shaken by the reports. Next morning the air at Macassar was obscured by volcanic dust and ashes, and by noon the darkness was complete, the ships' decks being covered with ashes. The darkness continued so intense that the hand was not visible when held within a few inches of the eye. On board one of his majesty's ships a dust, resembling calcined pumice-stone, lay a foot in depth, and great quantities were thrown overboard. On approaching Sumbhawa the sea was covered to a vast extent with floating pumice, mixed with large logs and trunks of trees, which looked as if blasted by lightning. On shore, the perpendicular height of the ashes in the neighbourhood of Bima town was found to be three inches and three quarters; and within that place the accumulation of the ashes was so great, as to break down the roof of the resident's house. Of the town of Sanjier, four or five leagues to the south-east of the Tomboro mountain, the greater part of the crops, and a number of inhabitants, were destroyed, and the bay covered with floating logs and pumice-stone ashes.—(*Journal of the Royal Institution, &c.*)

Tolo Bay.—A deep bay that indents the east of the island of Celebes, the coast of which, as yet, has been but little explored.

Toloar Isle.—This is the largest of the Salibabo islands, named by Valentyn Karkallang, and by Capt. Hunter, Kercolang, situated between the 4th and 5th degrees of north latitude, and about 126° 30′ east lon.

This island is from eighty to a hundred miles in circumference, and is in general of a good height. The face of the country is composed of steep hills and extensive vallies, every part of which is covered with trees and verdure. It is populous and well cultivated, the inhabitants being mostly Mahomedans, who wear turbans, and are covered with cotton

cloth. Their houses, erected on posts, are well-built and neatly thatched, the whole exhibiting a considerable degree of civilization. The Dutch had formerly a flag here, but about 1773 the Magindanese exercised a sort of jurisdiction over the island, and exacted a tribute, which was usually paid in slaves.—(*Capt. Hunter, Forrest, &c.*)

Tominie Bay.—A bay that deeply indents the north-eastern quarter of Celebes, and abounds with small rocky islands and rocky shoals. It is also named Goonong Tello bay.

Tonda Bava.—A village in the Mysore province, situated in a wild country surrounded by mountains, about twenty-four miles travelling distance W.N.W. from Nundydroog. To the south of this place there is a fine reservoir; and on a small eminence, close to the village, is a singular temple formed in the natural hollow of a huge mass of granite, painted red and white within, and held in great reverence by the sect of Baidara, who resort hither and worship a rude emblem of Mahadeva, under the appellation of Trimala. This village and the fortress of Mahakalidroog ought to exchange places (1820) in the best maps.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Tondi.—A town on the sea-coast of the Southern Carnatic province, lat. 9° 43′ N., lon. 76° 5′ E. This place gave the name to, but the modern capital of Tondiman's country is Puducotta.

Tondiman's Country.—A large zemindary in the Southern Carnatic, bounded on the north by the province of Tanjore, and on the east by the bay of Bengal. Much of this great estate is still covered with forest, particularly the southern portion, where the savage character of the scenery is enhanced by the picturesque rocks which rise at intervals above the jungle. Towards Puducotta the country becomes more open, and the soil is a large grained sand, with rifts, moist in some places, and so soft and spongy as to sink to the depth of two feet under the tread of an elephant.

The Tondiman family having always exhibited the greatest fidelity and attachment to the East-India Company, at a time when these qualities, even in a zemindar, were of importance, great attention has, in consequence, always been shewn to their interests and to the amelioration of their estate. On the death of Vijaya Raghunath Tondiman in 1807 he left his zemindary to his two sons, then children, encumbered with a heavy debt of 80,000 pagodas, which, but for the interference of the Madras presidency, would have accumulated by embezzlement and usury to the utter ruin of the orphans. To prevent this natural progression of a native estate, the children were placed under the superintendance of Major Wm. Blackburn, then resident at Tanjore, associated with two most respectable relations as local managers, and so different was the result of this system, that in 1811 not one pagoda of the debt remained unpaid, while the cultivation of the soil, owing to the steady regularity of the management, had been greatly advanced. In that year the actual revenue received amounted to 32,804 star pagodas.

The Malabar system of succession, which prevails among the southern poligars, does not include the Tondiman's; for the present (1820) Tondiman is the grandson (not the grand nephew) of the chief celebrated in the early wars of the Carnatic. His younger brother takes a joint part with him in the administration of affairs. Both of them speak English with tolerable fluency, and are said to be very attentive to business, a rare quality in an East-Indian gentleman. So improved is the state of the country, that among this tribe of thieves, by birth and profession, a theft is scarcely known, a great contrast to its condition twenty years back, and a proof how easily the character of natives alters with altered circumstances. The Tondi-man (the English termination man, added to Tondi, the name of a town) is per-

haps the most favoured dependent of the British nation in all Hindostan, a just reward for the inflexible adherence of his family to the British cause at all times and through all fortunes. His original territories have been considerably enlarged; he is master of his own revenues, is protected from all external annoyance, and pays no tribute, subsidy, or contribution in any shape whatever.—(*Fullarton, Major Blackburn, Orme, &c.*)

Tongho.—A town in the province of Pegu, situated on the east side of the Sitang river, said to be second in importance in the Burmese empire, situated about 100 miles east of Prome, from which it is separated by the Galadzet mountains; lat. 18° 45′ N., lon. 96° 45′ E. It has not as yet been described by any European, but according to native report is surrounded by a ditch and brick wall of some strength. This town was formerly the capital of an independent kingdom, which was subdued by the Peguers, and the district of Tongho is now the jaghire or personal estate of the king of Ava's elder brother, who bears the title of prince of Tongho.—(*Public Journals, Symes, &c.*)

Tongkhwen.—A British district in the province of Arracan, extending from near Sandowy in lat. 18° 30′ N. to Cape Negrais in lat. 15° 55′ N.—The route from Sandowy to its chief town, named Ghoa, is along the seacoast, which is every where studded with rocks, rocky isles, islets, and reefs, which render it a dangerous navigation at all seasons, and quite impracticable during the south-west monsoon. The road is intersected by numerous streams and creeks not fordable, and much swelled during the rains. This district in 1827, when visited by a British deputation, was found extremely thinly peopled, not owing to any deficiency of natural resources, but to the former misgovernment and tyranny of the Burmese.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Tonk.—A Rajpoot town in the province of Ajmeer, fifty miles travelling distance south from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 26° 12′ N., lon. 75° 38′ E. This is a considerable town, well-built of stone, but containing no remarkable public edifices. It stands in a triangular hollow between two hills, and protected by an excellent stone wall, which forms the base of the triangle below, and stretches along up the margin of the cliffs behind. Close by is a small lake, about three miles south from the Banass. This town and territory was acquired in 1818 by the British government, which transferred it to Ameer Khan, who, probably for the first time in his life, became stationary here, and with some of his banditti in 1820 was building a house near the Banass.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Tonoru.—A town in the Mysore province, near to which are still to be seen the remains of the wall of an ancient city, which indicate that they once must have been of great extent. The reservoir also is a very great work, and is said to have been formed by Rama Anuja, about the year 1,000 of the Christian era. It is formed by an embankment between two mountains, which Tippoo attempted to destroy by cutting a trench through the mound, in the hope, it is said, of finding treasure at the bottom. The tank was repaired after his overthrow, and the town has in consequence much recovered.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Tonse River (*Tansa*).—A river of Northern Hindostan, which was unknown until 1814, although it is nearly treble the size of the Jumna above their junction, at lat. 30° 30′ N., and by far the most important river; for the Jumna is fordable above their confluence, while the Tonse is not. In 1819 Lieutenant Herbert traced this river to its source in the Himalaya, where it issues from a snowy bed, thirty-one feet broad and knee-deep, 12,784 feet above the level of the sea, near to the sources of the Jumna, but from the northern face of the same cluster of peaks. In the upper part of its

course it is called the Sapin.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Tonse (*Tansa*).—A river which has its source in the mountains of Rewah, whence it descends in a tremendous cataract 200 feet high. It is afterwards joined by various tributary torrents from the same range, and after a course of above 100 miles through the plains, falls into the Ganges, about twenty miles below Allahabad. The Tonse is a very considerable stream during the rainy season, but is too rapid to admit of its being navigated.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Toojar.—A town in Northern Hindostan, six miles W.S.W. from Subhatoo; lat. 30° 56′ N., lon. 76° 53′ E.

Toolseepoor (*Tulasi Pura*).—A town in the province of Oude, fifty miles N. by E. from Fyzabad; lat. 27° 29′ N., lon. 82° 17′ E.

Toombudra River (*Tungha Bhadra*).—A river of the South of India, which rises near Hooly Onore, where the two rivers, the Tungha and the Bhadra, from whence it takes its designation, meet. The Tunga, which is the northern river, takes its rise in the Western Ghauts, about half a degree south of Bednore; the Bhadra, from a chain of hills situated to the eastward of the ghauts, nearly opposite to Mangalore, and known by the name of the Baba Booden hills. After flowing through a jungly country for nearly a degree, it joins its waters with the Tunga, at Koorly, a sacred village near Hooly Onore. From hence, taking a sweep first north and westerly, and afterwards to the east, it continues a very winding course until it joins the Krishna. Like the river last-mentioned, it is crossed in round baskets of bamboo wicker, rudely fastened together and covered with half-tanned hides.—(*Moor, F. Buchanan, Fullarton, Lamblon, &c.*)

Toomoon.—A small town in the province of Malwa, eighty-four miles west from Chatterpoor; lat. 25° 8′ N., lon. 78° 35′ E. By Abul Fazel it is described as follows: "Toomar is a town situated on the banks of the river Betwah, in which are seen mermaids. Here is an idolatrous temple, in which if you beat a drum it makes no noise."

Tooney.—A small town in the Northern Circars, within six miles of the sea-coast of the Rajamundry district, on the south bank of the river Salliaveram, which separates Rajamundry from Vizagapatam. This place contains several pagodas, and is situated in a pleasant country, with hills on both sides.

Toongha.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Jeypoor, twenty-seven miles from the city of Jeypoor. This place is built of grey-stone, and stands at the base of a ridge of hills. Ruins of a fort, tower and other edifices remain on the height above, which for ages have been untenanted; and about one mile and a half distant is another hill-fort, of considerable extent, named Madooghur.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Toongnauth Temple.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, thirty-one miles N.E. from Serinagur; lat. 30°29′ N., lon. 79° 13′ E.; 9,989 feet above the level of the sea.

Tooracul Droog. — A hill-fort (probably in ruins) in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, about eighteen miles travelling distance from the town of Bellary.

Toorgoody.—A large village in the Carnatic province, district of Trichinopoly, about thirteen miles travelling distance E.S.E. from the city of Trichinopoly. This place is on the high road from Trichinopoly to Tanjore, and possesses a bungalow for the accommodation of travellers. (*Fullarton, &c.*)

Toorkeira.—A brick-built town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to the Peshwa, and contained 200 houses; lat. 21° 23′ N., lon. 74° 44′ E., ninety-six miles east from Surat. It stands on the banks of the Tuptee River, which

when full is here about three furlongs broad, but in May not above one-third of a furlong. It is crossed in a large flat-bottomed boat capable of holding 200 natives. The soil is rich and productive, but the country in 1816 was greatly infested by Bheels from the mountains.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Tooreyoor.—A town in the Carnatic province, twenty-five miles north from Trichinopoly; lat. 11° 7′ N., lon. 78° 43′ E.

Torbaila.—A town in the province of Lahore, division of Puckely, situated on the east side of the Indus, where it is joined by the small river Door; lat. 34° 12′ N., lon. 72° 45′ E. The Indus here enters into an open country, and expanding over the plain, forms numerous islands.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Tori Futtehpoor.—A town in the province of Allahabad, forty-four miles E. by S. from Ditteah; lat. 25° 28′ N., lon. 79° 5′ E.

Toritory.—A village with the ruins of a picturesque Hindoo temple in the Carnatic province, situated on the extreme point of the Ramnad peninsula, about twenty-eight miles travelling distance from the town of Ramnad. This is the usual place of embarkation for pilgrims proceeding to Ramisseram. The breadth of the strait from Toritory to Panban is about a mile and a half, and the passage is usually performed in a large heavy ferry-boat, pushed along with poles.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Torvakairy.—A town in the Mysore province, fifty-two miles north from Seringapatam; lat. 13° 10′ N., lon. 76° 43′ E.

Toroff (*Taraf*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Silhet, seventy-seven miles N.E. from Dacca; lat. 24° 20′ N., lon. 91° 18′ E.

Torres Straits.—Straits in the Eastern seas which separate the two large islands of Papua and New Holland. The passage recommended by Captain Flinders for passing through Torres Straits is by entering the reefs at Murray's island, by which route a two days' passage will carry a ship past all danger; but as the space between Wreck Reef and Murray's island is strewed with dangers, many of which have been discovered since the publication of Captain Flinders' charts, and of which the greater number have only been recently seen, it cannot be called a safe navigation. These dangers consist of low coral islands, surrounded by extensive reefs, upon which in dark nights a vessel is in momentary hazard of striking, and being in consequence completely shipwrecked. This route, called the inner passage, was first pursued by Mr. Cripps, of the brig Cyclops, bound from Port Jackson to Bengal in 1812; and was subsequently followed by Lieut. Jeffreys, of the hired armed vessel Kangaroo in 1815; but a safer route has been since pointed out by Captain King.

Toubang.—A large and populous town in Java, situated near the north coast, 470 miles east from Batavia, and fifty-four miles N.W. from Sourabhaya; lat. 6° 50′ S., lon. 112° 5′ E. Extensive forests of teak stretch hence over a rocky and hilly tract to the vicinity of Zedayo, on a near approach to which the land is level and well cultivated.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

Touradja (*Ta Rajja*).—An extensive district in the interior of Celebes, bordering to the north on the Alforeze mountains, which separate it from the bay of Tominie; to the east upon Loboe and Wadjo; to the south upon Seederiring, and to the west on the Mandans mountains.

A large proportion of the Ta Rajja tribe are aborigines, and unconverted to the Mahomedan faith, and are said to eat the prisoners made in war. Another portion live entirely on the water in their vessels, continually roving around Celebes, Floris, and Sumbhawa. These last are frequently named Biadjoos, and subsist by fishing biche-de-mar, and catching tor-

toises for the shell.—(*Stavorinus, Leyden, &c.*)

TOURATEA.—A small district situated at the southern extremity of Celebes, bounded by Macassar, Bontain, and the sea, and under the influence of the Dutch at Fort Rotterdam; lat. 5° 7′ S., lon. 119° 25′ E.

TOURNAGHAUT.—A pass in the province of Bejapoor from the Concan to the interior of the Western ghaut mountains; lat. 17° 35′ N., lon. 73° 50′ E.

TRADOK *(in Borneo)*.—See MONTRADOK.

TRANG RIVER.—A river with a bar entrance in the Malay peninsula, which forms the northern boundary of Queda, in lat. 7° 20′ N. In 1820 the village of Trang contained about 400 inhabitants, and there were many others on both sides of the river, and of its numerous branches. Elephants and iron may be procured here. The country belongs to the Ligor raja under the Siamese, but of late years has been little frequented. In 1827 a few elephants, some rice, some Siam wood, and a little tea, were exported to the Coromandel coast.—(*Anderson, Captain Burney, &c.*)

TRANQUEBAR *(Turangaburi)*.—A Danish settlement in the Southern Carnatic, situated on the sea-shore of the Tanjore district, 145 miles S. by W. from Madras. A Danish company was established at Copenhagen in 1612, and the first Danish vessel arrived on the coast of Coromandel in 1616, where they were kindly received by the Tanjore raja, from whom they purchased the village of Tranquebar, with the small territory adjacent, for which they still pay tribute. Here they erected the fortress of Dansburgh, the protection of which, and the correct conduct of the Danish company's servants, soon attracted population and commerce. The company, however, did not prosper, as in 1624 they surrendered up their charter and property to king Christian the Fourth, in payment of a debt they owed him. Under a frugal government the revenue of the port continued sufficient to pay the current expenses; and while Denmark continued neutral her subjects realized vast sums during the revolutionary war, by lending their names to cover British property. On the unfortunate rupture with that kingdom in 1807, the Danes were deprived of all their settlements in India.

The territory attached to Tranquebar is very small, being in its most extended limits about five miles long by three broad. The fortifications of the town towards the shore, consisting of a rampart and bastions faced with masonry, and a wet ditch at some distance from the walls, but without a glacis, are still (1820) in good repair. On the south there is a small branch of the Cavery, where boats find shelter; but there is no harbour, all vessels of a larger class being obliged to anchor outside of the surf. The form of the town is a polygon, and, though of small extent, is built with remarkable neatness and regularity. There is not a native hut or other mean structure within the walls. Two of the streets may be called handsome, the houses being of two and three stories, with little Grecian porticoes of three or four pillars projecting into the street, and windowed generally with rattan lattices. The government-house is near the centre, and there are two Protestant churches, besides a Portuguese Roman Catholic chapel. The fort or citadel occupies the south-eastern angle towards the sea, and contains an old castellated building, where the principal public offices are kept, with a light-house on the highest tower. The village of Pooriar, about a mile distant inland, forms a sort of suburb or black town, and besides the government garden-house, has several little Danish villas in the neighbourhood.

The revenues of Tranquebar are but scanty, being principally derived from the government share of the wet grain (rice) cultivation, the farms

for the sale of arrack, tobacco, fish, oil, &c. and also the produce of the sea customs. In 1809, when possessed by the British, the revenues of Tranquebar amounted to 16,013 star pagodas, and the total population to 19,679 persons. The principal commercial intercourse of this small settlement is with the Isle of France, Prince of Wales' Island, Singapoor, Ceylon, and Batavia. After the general pacification in 1814, Tranquebar was restored to its former owners, and has since much improved both in commerce and population. During the rupture with Britain this settlement necessarily suffered greatly; but the inhabitants bore the evil times without repining, and their conduct was on all occasions so strictly correct and honourable as to raise their character in the estimation of the adjacent British authorities under the Madras presidency. The raja of Tanjore still continues to receive the Tranquebar tribute, amounting to 2,000 chuckrums per annum.—(*A. H. Hamilton, Fullarton, Macpherson, &c.*)

TRAVANCORE, *(Tiruvancodu).*—A large province situated at the south-western extremity of Hindostan, between the 8th and 10th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the territories of the Cochin raja; on the south and west by the sea; and to the east it is separated from Tinnevelly by a range of lofty hills covered with jungle. In length it may be estimated at 140 miles, by forty the average breadth. The surface of the country in the vicinity of the mountains exhibits a varied scene of hill and dale, and winding streams which flow from the hills, and preserve the vallies in a state of perennial verdure. The grandeur of the scene is much enhanced by the lofty forests with which the mountains are covered, producing pepper, cardamoms, cassia, frankincense, and other aromatic gums. In the woods at the bottom of the hills are many elephants, buffaloes, and tigers of the largest size. Monkies, apes, and baboons, are very numerous, and herd together in flocks and families.

The agriculture and productions of Travancore, well adapted to its more favourable climate and superior soil, differ materially from the cultivation and crops of the Carnatic. The wet cultivation is conducted without the aid of tanks, the seasons affording sufficient moisture for the production of rice on every spot fit for that purpose, and as the utmost degree of industry is exerted, the quantity produced in a country like this, where the crops never fail, must necessarily be large. The natives believe this to be so considerable, that they assert the whole of the government expenses, civil, military, and religious, are defrayed from the wet cultivation alone, without infringing on that accruing from the dry species of tillage. The latter principally consists of pepper, betel-nut, and coco-nuts, all monopolized or heavily taxed. The timber forests are generally farmed; ginger, coir, turmeric, and kopra monopolized. Tobacco for the consumption of the province is imported from Ceylon, and made a government monopoly, and transit duties are exacted on all commodities passing through the interior. Among other articles, the produce of Travancore, and heavily taxed, are cassia buds, mace, long nutmegs, wild saffron, narwally, coculus indicus, bees'-wax, elephants' teeth, and sandal-wood. The sea customs of the province, Christian festivals, and fishermen's nets are taxed, and a capitation tax levied on all males from sixteen to sixty, with the exception of Nairs, Moplays, and artificers, the very classes best able to pay it. This operates as a tax on the soil, and compensates to government for the light assessment on the grain produce. The landholder is bound for all cultivators on his estate, each person is assessed at three fanams. The number subjected to this tax has been estimated at 250,000. The sum total of these multifarious exactions has been estimated at twenty lacks of rupees,

which is exclusive of the wet cultivation as already mentioned, and and from the detail here presented, some idea may be formed of the unsparing rapacity of fiscal regulations under a genuine Hindoo monarchy, the whole having been imposed before Travancore had any connexion with the British nation.

Under the old Travancore government, from the prime minister (the dewan) to the superintendant of a few houses, there was an uninterrupted chain of authorities, subordinate in the strictest sense to their respective superiors, and exercising all the powers of the sovereignty, for they were not only charged with the revenue assessments, the administration of justice, the chastisement of offenders, but also with the command of the militia and defence of the country. The whole arrangement was calculated to obtain the completest command over the persons and property of the people; nor could any system of rule be better adapted for the purposes of extortion and oppression, throughout all their ramifications. These, however, were exactly the abuses which the British never tolerated in their dominions, and endeavoured to remedy in Travancore by introducing a balance of authority, and depriving the karigars of their judicial and military functions, thereby reducing them to the station of mere revenue officers.

A short time before the effective interposition of the British government the dewan of Travancore, in imitation of the regulations promulgated in the Company's provinces, established a certain number of courts of justice, but from various causes the experiment did not succeed. In 1810, an improved system was introduced by Colonel John Munro, the British resident, in which the Hindoo law was continued as the basis, but in certain cases departure from its strict letter was permitted. According to the Brahminical sacred writings the killing of a cow is capital, and trial by ordeal sanctioned, as also other practices equally extravagant and absurd, while the punishments decreed were various, cruel, often ludicrous, and in reality inflicted according to the caprice of the dewan and his subordinate officers. Among other cases which came before the resident, while acting as dewan, was an appeal from the decision of a karigar or inferior judge, who had directed certain property to be given up to a man on oath. This suit being referred to an assembly of pundits for their opinion, they reported "that the decision of the karigar was correct and just, but as the oath taken had been rendered void owing to the death of a cow in the house of the person who had sworn, before the term of forty days had expired, the property must be relinquished to the opposite party."

Travancore, from the earliest tradition, has been subject to a Hindoo government and guided by Hindoo laws, which in many instances are founded less on the general principles of justice and morality, applying to all descriptions of persons, than upon peculiar dogmas of the Brahminical faith. Many delinquencies pronounced capital by the Hindoo laws, are not even deemed criminal by the Christian and Mahomedan codes; nor in Travancore can these two persuasions be considered strangers, being, in fact, an ancient and inherent portion of the community. It was accordingly thought improper to subject them to the operation of the Hindoo criminal law; a separate system was in consequence formed for each class, modelled upon that promulgated in the Company's old provinces. When submitted to the pundits, most of the requisite modifications of the shastras were adopted without hesitation, and acquiesced in by the queen; but to the trial by ordeal both parties clung with remarkable pertinacity; and it became necessary, in compliance with their united supplications, to admit it in certain cases, under the express sanction of the dewan. Indeed, in Travancore, even so preposterous a mode of trial appears to have been

productive of salutary effects, in restraining, through the influence of their superstition and cowardice, the excesses of a cunning, avaricious, and cruel generation. So contagious is example, that that species of trial had pervaded other sects, and had occasionally been resorted to by the Jews of Travancore. One unfortunate Hebrew complained to the resident, that he, having incurred suspicion, had been obliged to put his hand in a vessel full of boiling oil; and not being able to sustain the fiery scrutiny, had lost his cause and the use of his hand.

The existing compilation of Hindoo law in Travancore is named Varahara Maleka, comprehending the rules for trial and judgment, with a detailed exposition of the holy texts. This code is said to have been drawn up by Mahesha Mungalum Nambuderi, a Brahmin of the Malabar coast, and inhabitant of Parumanum, in the territory of Cochin, about A.D. 1496. In 1811 courts, to administer justice according to the new code, were established at certain stations; but the British resident was obliged to perform the functions of dewan, it being found impossible to discover a native with adequate abilities and integrity throughout the whole province. Indeed, the successive dewans of Cochin and Travancore for a long series of years had been distinguished by an overbearing arrogance to their sovereigns, which rendered the queen averse to the re-establishment of so imperious a functionary.

Travancore being an integral portion of the ancient Malabar, the usages and customs greatly resemble those described under that head; and the mode of succession to the throne and property is regulated by the same extraordinary rules. The husbands of the tamburetties, or princesses, have no rank or authority in the state, and are always sent back to their villages on the decease of the tamburetties to whom they had been married. At a very early period the Christian religion gained a footing in Travancore, and its subsequent progress was so great, that twenty years ago this province was supposed to contain 90,000 persons professing the doctrines of Christianity. In some parts Christian churches are so numerous and Hindoo temples so rare, that a traveller with difficulty believes himself to be in India. The most common name given to the Christians of Malabar by the Hindoos of the country is that of Nazaranee Mapila (Moplay), but also very frequently Surians and Suriani Mapila. A large proportion of the fishermen on the sea-coast of Travancore and Malabar are Christians. After the suppression of the Jesuits the greatest number of Roman Catholic churches in Travancore and Cochin were attached to Goa, from whence they were supplied with Portuguese clergy; but the institution at Verapoly has gradually and unjustly encroached upon them, and now exercises a more extensive jurisdiction than any other. With respect to the general character of the Hindoo inhabitants, it seems to have struck two successive residents as being of the very worst description, destitute of truth and honesty, and abandoned to vice and corruption. This turpitude they attributed to the perverted system of their social relations, under which the social charities and the parental ties and affections, which connect father with child, and neighbour with neighbour, were extinguished.

In this kingdom the male offspring of the tamburetties, or princesses, are the only legal heirs to the throne; but there are certain forms and ceremonies indispensable to the becoming tamburetties. It also appears that tamburetties of Attingara possessed the sovereignty of Travancore from remote antiquity, until Raja Martanden Wurmah, who died in 1758, persuaded the reigning tamburetty to make over the sovereign authority to the rajas, both for herself and for all succeeding tamburetties. Raja Martanden afterwards attacked the neighbouring petty states, and between 1740 and 1755 subdued many, through the efficacy

of a body of troops disciplined after the European manner, by Eustachius de Lanoy, a Flemish officer. From the above date the Travancore rajas, by intrigue and force, continued to swallow up all the adjacent chiefs, until 1790, when, in consequence of a dispute about the purchase of Cranganore, Tippoo attacked his lines, penetrated to Virapelly, and but for Lord Cornwallis's interference, would have totally subdued the province. These celebrated lines were, by the natives, deemed impregnable: but they were really more imposing than effectual, as throughout the great extent of thirty miles, few points were closed in the rear, so that nearly the whole would follow the fate of a single point.

In 1795 one subsidiary treaty was concluded with the raja of Travancore and in 1805 another, by the conditions of which he transferred the management of his external political relations exclusively to his allies. As frequently occurs in native states, the dewan or prime minister of Travancore attained an influence over the country, which wholly superseded that of his master, and was exercised in so hostile a manner towards the British government, that in 1809 a war ensued, when his strong lines, guarded by a numerous army, were forced by a small detachment of British troops, and the province subdued with unprecedented rapidity.

In 1809 the failure of the measures adopted by the Travancore state for the liquidation of its debts, attracted the serious attention of Lord Minto, who addressed a letter to the raja notifying the impending necessity of assuming his territories, which was done in 1810, when the newly appointed resident, Col. John Munro, found that eighteen lacks of rupees remained due to the British government, besides five lacks to particular individuals. Not long afterwards the raja died and the throne was ascended by the tamburetty next in succession, the Elliah raja or heir apparent being excluded, his mother not having undergone certain forms and ceremonies indispensible to the becoming tamburetty. Between this lady and the dewan such extreme animosity subsisted, that added to his untractable conduct and embezzlement of confiscated property, rendered his removal unavoidable. The whole burthen of the government was then assumed by the resident, by whom, prior to 1813, the Travancore debts public and private were all discharged, and an adequate system for the collection of the revenue and administration of justice introduced. The result was so progressive an increase of landed resources, that in five years the amount of the revenue realized had doubled, although the rent had in many cases been diminished and in no instance increased. In 1809 the land revenue collected amounted to 7,21,687 rupees; in 1813 to 15,62,830 rupees; the increase originating from the prevention of abuses, and the procuring of sums formerly misappropriated by individuals. One great state disbursement in Travancore is on account of the temples, and for the performance of stated religious rites. The allowance for both of these were not only left untouched, but discharged with a punctuality never before witnessed in this priest-ridden country.

The second tamburetty having died in 1811 of the small-pox, apprehensions were entertained that the chief tamburetty, or queen regent, might experience a similar fate. She declined, however, being vaccinated, having already had the small-pox, but recommended the doctor to vaccinate her husband, and the two young tamburetties, who were accordingly inoculated, and thereby preserved from a distemper which then raged with great mortality in Travancore. In 1813 the queen was delivered of a son, and soon afterwards a white elephant was caught among the Shutamut mountains, to the great joy of the ranny and her subjects; the colour of the animal indicating an auspicious reign to the young raja. He was soon afterwards inaugurated at Trivanderam, where a throne conceal-

ed by scarlet curtains was placed in the hall of audience, which being drawn up, the queen appeared seated on it, attended by her sister, the second tamburetty, the children of the former rajas, and the principal Brahmins and state officers. A proclamation notifying the accession of the young raja was read aloud, and he was brought forward and shown to the surrounding multitude. During this ceremony the queen and every person continued standing, the British troops presented arms, and their band played God save the king, while the music of the Travancore army made a considerable noise.

The queen, however, was not long destined to enjoy her good fortune, for in 1814 she was delivered of another son and soon afterwards died. The resident in consequence recommended her sister, the principal tamburetty, to act as regent during the minority of the infant raja, which arrangement was subsequently carried into execution, when the young raja and the other children were placed under the joint care of the chief tamburetty and their own father, a person usually of little importance in the Travancore state. Consistent with British policy it was rather desirable that the dignity and consideration of the tamburetties should be augmented, as their influence tends to moderate the rash and precipitate resolutions of the raja, and the country still abounded with suppressed factions eager to profit by a renewal of intestine warfare. Towards the conclusion of 1814 all the objects for the attainment of which the resident had assumed the station of dewan having been accomplished, he resigned his official functions, but great difficulty was experienced in discovering a native properly qualified for so important a vocation. At this period the total revenues of the country were estimated at thirty lacks of rupees per annum, and the subsidy payable to the British government for preserving internal tranquillity, and preventing external invasion, about eight lacks of rupees.—(*Col. John Munro, MSS., Public MS. Documents, C. Buchanan, &c.*)

Travancore.—The ancient capital of the above province, situated in lat. 8° 25′ N., lon. 77° 33′ E., twenty-seven miles N.N.W. from Cape Comorin.

Tricaloor.—A town in the Carnatic province, situated on the south side of the Panaur river, forty-three miles west from Pondicherry; lat. 11° 15′ N., lon. 79° 15′ E.

Tricatore *(Tricatur)*.—A small town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, thirty miles travelling distance from the city of Madura. At this place there is one of the finest tanks in the south of India, and on its bank stands a handsome pagoda, remarkable for the massy pyramidical top that rises over the body of the edifice.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Tricatoor *(Tricatur)*.—A considerable town with a lofty pagoda, in the Carnatic province and Tanjore district, about four miles N.W. from Tranquebar.

Trichendore.— See Tinnevelly District.

Trimapoor.—A town in Tondiman's country in the Southern Carnatic, about two miles and a half west from Puducotta; lat. 10° 21′ N., lon. 79° 55′ E.

Trimbuck. — A holy place and strong fortress in the province of Aurungabad, situated near the source of the Godavery, eighty-seven miles S.S.E. from Surat; lat. 20° 1′ N., lon. 73° 42′ E. Like most of the hill-forts in Gunterry, Trimbuck, owing to its lofty and inaccessible scarp, is impregnable to any army or artillery, however well served. At the base it is about twelve miles in circumference, and about four at its upper surface. The ascent to the upper fortress is extremely difficult, the principal one being merely a narrow stair-case, cut into the face of the precipice, and capable of admitting only one man at a time. In 1818, however, the gar-

rison surrendered to a British detachment after a very trivial resistance.

The sacred river, the Gunga Godavery, rises on the top of Trimbuck, whence it issues in single drops from the rock, where it is covered by a small pagoda containing various Hindoo idols. From thence the rill runs down the side of Trimbuck, passing through the town of that name to Nassuck, where it expands to a considerable stream.

Trimium.—A confused village of Collery huts in the Southern Carnatic, situated in one of the wildest tracts of Tondimans woods, at the base of a small bulging fortified rock resembling Dindigul in miniature. The lower fort, enclosed by lofty stone walls, is on a level with the village, and contains several inhabited streets, the ruins of a palace and a pagoda of curious architecture. In 1820, this place was garrisoned by a party of fifty Colleries armed with firelocks. Trimium is the Tondiman chief's stronghold, and was occupied for a time during the poligar disturbances by British troops.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Trimoolaya Rampatam.—A town of considerable extent and population in the Carnatic province, situated on the sea-coast of the Tanjore district, and bounded on the north by one of the arms of the Cavery, which separates it from the French settlement of Karical. It stands about twelve miles south from Tranquebar.

Trichinopoly (*Trichinapali*).—A district in the Carnatic province, under the Madras presidency, situated about the eleventh degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Salem and South Arcot; on the south by Dindigul and Madura; to the east it has the district of Tanjore; and on the west Salem and Coimbatoor.

The country around Trichinopoly, although not so highly cultivated as Tanjore, is rendered productive of rice by the vicinity of that branch of the Cavery named the Coleroon. The cotton cultivation is also considerable, its amount, in 1820, having been estimated by the collector at 1,500,000 lbs., and capable of great extension. Formerly the size and situation of the city, the abundance of subsistance in the neighbourhood, and the long residence of Mahomed Ali's second son, Ameer ul Omra, rendered Trichinopoly the favourite residence of the Mahomedans in the Southern Carnatic. On the adjacent island of Seringham, are two magnificent pagodas, which have long commanded the veneration of the Hindoos. The climate here at particular seasons, on account of the quantity of moisture, is not so intensely hot as in other parts of the Carnatic. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue in this district amounted to 4,93,739 star pagodas, and in 1822, according to the returns made by the collectors to the Madras presidency, the total population was etimated at 481,292 persons. — (*Fifth Report, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Trichinopoly.—The capital of the preceding district, situated on the south side of the Cavery 118 miles S.W. from Pondicherry. This city was the capital of a Hindoo principality until A.D. 1736, when Chundah Saheb acquired it by trenchery, but lost it to the Maharattas in 1741. From these depredators it was taken, in 1743, by Nizam ul-Mulk, who on his departure to the Deccan delegated Anwar ud Deen to administer the affairs of the Carnatic, and on his death, in 1749, it devolved by inheritance to his second son, the Nabob Mahomed Ali. In consequence of this arrangement it sustained a memorable siege by the French and their native allies, which lasted from 1751 to 1755, in the course of which the most brilliant exploits were performed on both sides; but the extraordinary military talents displayed by Lawrence, Clive, Kirkpatrick, Dalton and other officers, combined with the heroic valour of the British grenadiers, preserved the city, and established the British candidate on the throne of the Carnatic. The energy

of character called forth on these occasions by the alternate reverses and successes of the contending parties, and the strenous and manly exertions of each to repair their losses, and once more to meet their adversaries in the field, so admirably narrated by Mr. Orme, are scarcely excelled in interest by those of the Peloponnesian war, as related by Thucidydes, both historians being in a manner spectators of the events they described.

The relative condition of the Carnatic since that eventful period, has been greatly changed, and the individual importance of this city altered with them. At present the fortified city or pettah encloses the rock, and is separated by the deep and strong current of the Colloway from a populous and extensive suburb, on the skirts of which are the dwellings of the civilians, surrounded by one of the finest military cantonments in India. The whole is intersected by excellent roads and shaded by a profusion of garden trees and others coeval with the station. The fortifications of the city do not appear to have undergone any material alteration since the days of Clive and Lawrence, save what has been wrought by the operation of time. A clear esplanade is preserved between the city and suburb, and the double wall of stone loop-holed without for musketry, the old round bastions, ditch, and glacis, still present a formidable line of defence.

The ascent is by a curious sort of staircase, partly covered and partly in the open air, at some distance from the ground. About eighty feet above the general level of the city is a well-built street of Brahmins' houses, and higher up is the celebrated pagoda, a huge, massy, and windowless pile. A pillared square building, containing a statue of Hunimaun, occupies the most elevated peak. In the southern face of the rock below there is a small excavation, something in the style of the second class of cave temples at Elora, and from its sculptures apparently of Brahminical origin. The hill comprehending all the above fortifications is a rock of syenite, about 330 feet high, and the margin of the green alluvial tract below is studded hereabouts with other isolated rocks, scarcely less remarkable than that of Trichinopoly. The Golden Rock, the Sugar-loaf Rock, the French Rock, and the more distant Elimiseram with its fortified pagoda, all names of classical note in the history of the siege. Close by in a Mussulman dirgah beyond the western wall of the city, under a plain slab, and no ways distinguished, lie the bones of Chundah Saheb, and in a sort of choultry adjoining are the burial places of Ameer ul Omra and family, but still embellished with silk curtains, and sanctified by the prayers of attendant moollahs.

The population of Trichinopoly and its immediate environs in 1820 was estimated at 80,000 persons, who exhibit no particular feature of a more advanced stage of civilization than their inland neighbours, except a superior proneness to litigation. Having long been the capital of a Hindoo principality, a notion prevails among the natives that much treasure is concealed somewhere; but none has yet been found. It cannot, however, be doubted that a country like Hindostan, into which a current of gold and silver bullion has set for 2,000 years, must contain innumerable hoards of hidden treasure, all Hindoos being more or less hoarders. Travelling distance from Madras 268 miles; from Seringapatam, 205; and from Calcutta 1,238 miles. —(*Fullarton, Orme, Heyne, &c.*)

Trincomalee.—A town, fortress, and excellent harbour in the island of Ceylon, 150 miles N.E. from Columbo; lat. 8° 32′ N., lon. 81° 17′ E., 128 miles travelling distance from Candy. Owing to the convenience of its situation, the harbour of Trincomalee is the most important in India. When the violent monsoon commences all the ships on the Coromandel coast and western side of the bay of Bengal are obliged to put to sea, and then Trincomalee is their

only place of refuge. A vessel from Madras can arrive here in two days, and the harbour is to be made at any season. It was much neglected by the Dutch, the soil being barren and the air noxious, and having no continental possessions of importance to defend, the mere roadstead was of little utility. Neither did the grandeur of the surrounding scenery, so different from the flat swamps of Holland and Batavia (their standard of beauty), interest them. The harbour is accessible at all seasons, but for one half of the year mariners prefer Back bay, it being then equally safe, and of more easy egress. The depth of water within the bay of Trincomalee is remarkable: in some places not far from the shore it is unfathomable, and vessels may lie close along the rocks, but the rise of the tides are not sufficient for wet docks.

The great body of the town and fort of Trincomalee are placed at the bottom of a rock, and joined to a narrow neck of land running parallel to the sea, and separating the harbour from two adjacent bays, one of which lies on each side of a three cornered promontory. The guns command both Dutch and Back bay, the first on the south, the last on the north side of the fortified rock. Fort Ostenburgh stands on a mount three miles west of Trincomalee, and protects the mouth of the harbour. The fortifications of Trincomalee form a sweep of above a mile in length, encompassing the base of a rocky hill on the sides connected with the adjacent land, the portion that projects into the sea being sufficiently protected by the steepness of the cliffs. No communication can take place with the promontory, except through the gates of the fort, and its situation is so advantageous that it may be rendered impregnable. The works both of Fort Ostenburgh and Trincomalee, were mostly erected by the Portuguese, with some additions by the French (who are great fortifiers) during the short period they possessed it; the Dutch did little or nothing. There have as yet been very few European settlers attracted to this place. In 1800, the inhabitants were mostly natives of the Carnatic, here named Malabars, with a small Chinese colony established by the exertions of Admiral Drury. Owing to the barren unproductive nature of the surrounding country, there is no export trade whatever, and even in the best seasons provisions and vegetables are scarce. The adjacent jungles abound with wild hogs and elephants, the latter having been shot within a mile of the town.

In A. D. 1672, M. de la Haye, the commander of a French squadron, attempted a settlement here, but being opposed by the Dutch, he bore away for the coast of Coromandel. From that date it remained with the Hollanders until 1782, when it surrendered without resistance to a detachment of troops from Madras, but was shortly after retaken with equal ease by Admiral Suffrein. In 1795, General James Stewart was sent with an army against Trincomalee, where the fleet anchored to the south-east of the fort, and after a siege of three weeks, preparations having been made to storm, the Dutch governor capitulated. The naval department, stores, and establishments have been since transferred from Madras to Trincomalee, and the fortifications have been occupied by a British garrison, but scarcely any thing is known respecting its present condition or progress for the last twenty years.—(*Percival, Cordiner, M. Graham, Davy, &c.*)

TRINGANO (*Trangannu*).—A petty state on the east coast of the Malay peninsula, extending from Kamamang in 4° 15′ N. to the river Basut, where it borders on Calantan. Inland it is bounded by Perak, at the central range of mountains. It yields also tin and gold in considerable quantities, the first equal to 7,000 peculs annually. The surface and general aspect of the country resembles that of Singapoor, being a succession of low hills, extending a considerable

distance inland, which have been found so well adapted for the cultivation of coffee, that in 1825, 2,000 peculs of an excellent quality were exported. In 1824 the population of this principality was estimated at 35,000 Malays, exclusive of Chinese. Indeed, it may be considered one of the most genuine of the modern Malay states, where that dialect is spoken in its greatest purity and perfection, although for many years it has paid tribute to Siam.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Leyden, &c.*)

Trinomalee (*Tirunamali*).—A town in the Carnatic, fifty-two miles W.N.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 12° 11′ N., lon. 79° 7′ E. In the Carnatic wars of last century this place sustained many sieges; but no traces now remain of the bound-hedge or fortifications with which it was formerly surrounded. A craggy mountain, about two miles in circumference, and rising in the middle to a great height, has besides others, on the highest rock a small chapel, which is held in extreme veneration, from the persuasion, that whoever, except the officiating Brahmins, should presume to enter it, would immediately be consumed by subterranean fire rising for the occasion. The great pagoda is situated at the base of the mountain within a triple enclosure, surrounded by numerous fine choultries, two spacious tanks, and subordinate chapels; but the most remarkable object is the principal gateway of twelve stories and 222 feet high. The town of Trincomalee is extensive and populous, and the great street leading to the temple is lined with choultries and the habitations of Brahmins.—(*Orme, Fullarton, &c.*)

Tripachitty.—A large village in the Carnatic, situated on the Vyaur, amidst plantations of coco-nut trees, about eighteen miles travelling distance S.E. from Madura.

Tripatoor (*Tripatura*).—A large open village in the Barramahal, 120 miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 29′ N., lon. 78° 39′ E. This is a populous place, well sheltered with fruit trees, and exhibiting a greater appearance of comfort than is usual in the Barramahal. In the vicinity there is an extensive reservoir. An attempt was made here by Colonel Read to introduce silk-worms and the manufacture of sugar, but both failed.—(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Tripatoor.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, fifty-two miles S.S.W. from Tanjore; lat. 10° 7′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E. There is a fort here which appears to have been a place of strength, and was occupied by a British garrison during the poligar wars, but it is now in ruins.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Tripatoor.—A small, but well-built town in the Carnatic province, district of Chingleput, about twenty-seven miles S. by W. from Madras. There is a Hindoo temple here of considerable note.

Tripawanum.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, situated on the right bank of the Vyaur, about twelve miles travelling distance S.E. from the city of Madura. It is within the principality of the Shevagunga poligar.

Tripassoor (*Tripasura*).—A town in the Carnatic province, thirty-four miles west from Madras; lat. 13° 7′ N., lon. 79° 52′ E.

Tripetty (*Tripati*).—The most celebrated Hindoo temple south of the Krishna, situated in lat. 13° 46′ N., lon. 79° 24′ E., eighty miles N.W. from Madras. This pagoda stands in an elevated hollow or basin, enclosed in a circular crest of hills, the sacred precincts of which have never been profaned by Christian or Mahomedan feet, nor has even the exterior of the temple been seen but by a genuine Hindoo. The reciprocal interests of the Brahmins, and of the different rulers under whose sway it fell, compromised this forbearance by the payment of a large sum of money, which in 1758 amounted to £30,000. The incarnation of Vishnu worshipped here has a variety of names, such as Vencata, Rama, and Tripati;

but by the Maharattas he is named Ballajee, and his attributes are supposed to have a particular reference to commerce. Crowds of pilgrims resort to the sanctuary from all parts of India, who pour in offerings of goods, grain, gold, silver, jewels, precious stuffs, horses, cows, and other articles, the aggregate of which, when converted into money, not only yields a surplus revenue to conciliate the powers that be, but also sufficient to maintain several thousand persons performing the offices of an idolatrous worship, which is here conducted with extraordinary pomp. Besides the above goods and chattels, the traders of the Banyan and Bhattea tribes of Gujerat are accustomed to present a per-centage of their annual profits.

The average of seventeen years' gross collections of the Tripetty pagoda, up to A.D. 1818, amounted to 54,564 pagodas annually; the total charges to about 11,000 pagodas annually. The highest stage of the gross collections was in 1801, when they amounted to 70,507 pagodas, from which period they have every year gradually declined, and in 1818 were only 34,458 pagodas actually remitted to Madras, besides which much had been embezzled by the native servants.

In 1801, while this temple was still under the superintendance of the nabob of Arcot and his officers, Ragotum RowRajindra, finance minister to his highness the Nizam, notified to Lord Clive, then governor of Madras, his intention of expiating his sins by a pilgrimage to Tripetty, and requesting his Lordship's interference with the nabob to secure him a safe passage through the Arcot territories, and a civil reception on his arrival at the holy sanctuary. The governor accordingly issued the necessary orders, and the first object was fully attained, but the second was entirely defeated by the insolence of the nabob's servants, who had the immediate supervision of the pagoda. In consequence of the disrespect shewn to the British mediation, the nabob was required to dismiss the head officer at the temple, with which injunction he nominally complied; but Lord Clive was compelled to enforce the real execution of his mandate by detaching a party of horse to Tripetty for that purpose. Previous to commencing this expedition the nabob's financier presented, through Captain Achilles Kirkpatrick, then resident at Hyderabad, a paper of requests, the second of which was "That the high priest of the temple should be prohibited from appropriating to his own use any of the cloths or ornaments which Raja Ragotum might present to Sri Raggojee" (the idol) a larceny, which, from the precautious nature of the stipulation, that sacred functionary appears to have been in the habit of practising. —(*Wilks, Public MS. Documents, Moor, &c.*)

Tripontary.—A town in the province of Cochin, nine miles east from the town of Cochin; lat. 9° 56′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E. This place stands on the east side of a lake, which formerly separated the possessions of the Dutch from those of the Cochin raja, who generally made it his place of residence.

Trivaloor.—A town in the Southern Carnatic, district of Tanjore, sixteen miles S.W. from Negapatam; lat. 10° 40′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E. This is a populous and pleasant town, situated a little way to the north of the Nagore river, across which there are two narrow bridges of masonry. There is a handsome square here of native houses, inclosing a magnificent tank, into which a peninsular choultry projects from the west bank, while on the opposite side is a lofty pagoda. South of the tank a choultry with a bungalow, belonging to the Tanjore raja, affords accommodation to European travellers. Certain ancient Tamul astronomical tables were constructed for a particular spot which Colonel Warren thinks was Trivaloor.—(*Fullarton, Warren, &c.*)

Trivanderam.—The modern capital of Travancore, situated in lat.

8° 9′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E., fifty-two miles N.W. from Cape Comorin. This is the usual summer residence of the Travancore rajas and rannys; but the castle is extremely ill-built. The royal palace is large and well-built, after the European taste, and decorated with a great variety of paintings, clocks, and other European ornaments. The town is populous, and in 1785, in addition to the permanent inhabitants, had a garrison of 400 Patan cavalry, 1,000 Nairs, and 10,000 sepoys, disciplined after the European fashion.—(*Fra. Paola, &c.*)

TRIVICARY (*Trivikera*).—A village in the Carnatic province, situated on the north side of the Ariancoopan or Villenore river, sixteen miles N.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 12° 3′ N., lon. 79° 43′ E. This place consists at present of a few scattered huts; but from the appearance of the pagoda, the interior of which is built of stones, the size of the tower over the gateway, which is eight stories, a large stone tank covering several acres, and another temple containing a colossal image of Ganesa, and numerous choultries, we may conclude that in some former period Trivicary was a place of great extent and religious importance.

The principal street can still be traced, and appears to have been large; but the Sanscrit inscriptions on the walls are now scarcely legible. The pagoda was much injured and the statues mutilated by Hyder's army, as it retreated from Porto Novo in 1781.

It is now principally remarkable for the petrifactions that are found in its vicinity, embedded mostly in the red calcareous material of a low ridge that rises to the west of the village. Many petrified trees of large dimensions lie scattered about, some as hard as flint, and others so soft as to be reduced to powder by the slightest pressure. One of these petrified trees is sixty feet long, and from two to eight feet in diameter. The petrified root of this tree is in most parts hard as flint, strikes fire with steel, and takes a much finer polish than any part of the stem. It also presents a more variegated appearance in its veins and colours, resembling agate when polished; and the red, when well chosen, can hardly be discriminated from cornelians. It is manufactured into beads, necklaces, bracelets, and other ornaments. The present growth of trees in the neighbourhood are principally of the tamarind species, from which circumstance it may be inferred that the petrifactions have the same origin. Tradition assigns a great antiquity to these petrifactions.—(*Warren, Fullarton, &c.*)

TRIVIDY.—A town in the Carnatic province, nineteen miles S.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 11° 46′ N., lon. 79° 40′ E. During the Carnatic wars of last century, the Trividy pagoda served as a citadel to a large pettah, by which name the natives of the south of India call every town contiguous to a fortress.

TRUMAH.—In 1822 this was by far the most considerable pepper district on the west coast of Sumatra; the quantity was estimated at 40,000 peculs.

TUDURU.—A village in the Mysore province, situated on the west bank of the Tunga river; lat. 13° 40′ N., lon. 75° 25′ E.

TUGHLICKABAD.—A fortified town with a strong citadel, situated in the territories assigned to the Mogul, in the province of Delhi, about nineteen miles south from the city of Delhi, and named after its founder the emperor Tughlick. A few miserable huts contain all the present inhabitants of Tughlickabad; but the rude, massy, and stupendous ruins of its walls, palaces, and subterranean apartments, still attract the curiosity of travellers. Within a separate irregular fortification connected with the town by a causeway, stands the mausoleum of the emperor Tuglick Shah (who reigned about A.D. 1321), built of gigantic blocks of

granite, in the form of a truncated pyramid, the walls converging as they ascend, and still in excellent preservation.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Tulcavery.—A village in the Malabar province, division of Coorg, near the source of the Cavery; fifty-five miles S.E. from Mangalore; lat. 12° 24′ N., lon. 75° 38′ E.

Tulgong.—A small town in the province of Aurungabad, seventeen miles N.N.W. from Poona; lat. 18° 23′ N., lon. 73° 51′ E.

Tullait.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated on the Beeruch river, twenty-seven miles travelling distance from Jawud. In 1820 it belonged to the rana of Odeypoor, and contained about 500 houses.

Tullaja.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, eight miles from the gulf of Cambay; lat. 21° 24′ N., lon. 72° 11′ E.

Tulluck—A town and district in the province of Mysore, twenty-five miles N.N.E. from Chittledroog; lat. 14° 24′ N., lon. 76° 51′ E. Up to 1820, inclusive, this portion of Hindostan was remarkably ill delineated in the best maps.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Tulluckwara.—A town in the province of Gujerat, which in 1820 belonged to the Guicowar, and contained about 300 houses; lat. 21° 57′ N., lon. 73° 37′ E. It stands on the right bank of the Nerbudda, and has a small oblong fort of masonry enclosed on two sides by the town, but of no strength. A few horse and matchlock-men are stationed here. The Nerbudda is navigable for small craft from the sea to eleven miles above this place, a distance of more than 100 miles.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Tulsung.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, fifteen miles west from the city of Bejapoor; lat. 16° 45′ N., lon. 75° 34′ E.

Tulwundy.—A town in the province of Lahore, the birth-place of Nanock Shah, the high priest and legislator of the Seiks; lat. 31° 15′ N., lon. 75° E., twenty miles S.S.E from Amritsir.

Tumlook.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated about thirty-five miles S.W. from Calcutta; lat. 22° 17′ N., lon. 88° 2′ E. The lands in this neighbourhood lie extremely low, and are protected from inundation by embankments, supported at a great expense; but which are occasionally broken by the freshes, and the adjacent country submerged. Tumlook is the head quarters of an agency for the manufacture of salt on government account, connected with that of Hidjellee. The article is prepared by filtration from the mud of the Hooghly river, and is esteemed of peculiar value by the Hindoos, as being extracted on the banks of the holiest branch of the Ganges.

Major Wilford was of opinion, that there were in remote times kings of Tumlook, or as he writes it Tamralipta, one of whom about A.D. 1001 sent an embassy to China. He also thought that by the inhabitants of that empire he was styled Tammonielieou.—(*Sir H. Strachey, Wilford, &c.*)

Tunga River.—A small river in the south of India, which has its source among the Western Ghauts, from whence it flows in a northerly direction, until it joins the Budra near Hooly Onore, thereby forming the Tungabhadra or Toombudra river.

Tunkaree.—A considerable town in the province of Gujerat, pergunnah of Jumbosier. The river here leading into the gulf of Cambay, has a twelve-foot rise of tide at the springs.—(*Marshall, &c*)

TUNQUIN.

A kingdom of India beyond the Ganges, formerly independent, but at present comprehended in the Cochin Chinese empire, and situated between the seventeenth and twenty-

third degrees of north latitude. To the south it is bounded by Cochin China and Laos, or the Shan country; on the north by the province of Quangsee in China; to the east it has the gulf of Tunquin; and on the west Laos and the Chinese province of Yunan. The country known in Europe by the denomination of Tunquin, is properly named Nuoc Anam, which region includes both Cochin China and Tunquin. The first is also named Dangtrong, which signifies the inner kingdom, and the last daugnay or the external kingdom.

Our information respecting this country is mostly derived from the French and other missionaries, who at an early period established themselves in this and the adjacent kingdom of Cochin China. According to their narrations, the country of Tunquin towards China is wild and mountainous, and the bounduries but imperfectly defined. The passes through the mountains are shut up by walls, one side of which is guarded by Chinese soldiers, and the other by those of Tunquin. The latter country is subdivided into ten districts, four of which, at the extremities, are distinguished by the cardinal points of the compass. Mountains, extending from east to west, separate Tunquin into two divisions, the northern of which is considerably larger than the southern. A prolongation of these ridges separates Lactho from Laos, and others separate Tunquin from Cochin China. These mountains are granitic, and many of them terminate in sharp peaks.

The seasons or monsoons are divided here into the wet and dry, which are not, however so invariable as in some other parts of India. The rains begin in May and end in August, and are accompanied by much thunder. The currents run along the coast from north to south; the tides are very irregular, and are strongest in November, December, and January, and weakest in May, June, and July; but at all times they run with less force than on the open coasts of Europe. General appearances of the Tunquin shore indicate a retrogression of the sea, and an advance of the land; but there are some places where the reverse seems to have taken place.

There are few countries better supplied with water than Tunquin and the lower parts of Cochin China. In the first there are above fifty rivers that flow towards the sea, several of which by their union form the Donnai or Tunquin river, which is said to have its source in the Yunan mountains of China, and traverses almost the whole of this kingdom. It was formerly much frequented by European navigators, and was, notwithstanding the bar at its mouth, accessible to ships of 500 tons, but at present the entrance is so much obstructed by sand-banks, that vessels of more than 200 tons cannot ascend. Indeed in modern times there are not any ports that can be entered by ships of considerable draft of water, but shelter and anchorage may be found among the islands scattered along the coast. The interior traffic between Tunquin and the Chinese provinces to the north and west is chiefly conducted through the medium of the Tunquin river, which in process of time may afford a channel for introducing British manufactures into remote parts of China, which have no direct or cheap intercourse with Canton. The returns would probably be made in the precious metals, which are said to abound in the hilly country of Tunquin and the neighbouring province of Yunan.

The soil of this kingdom varies according to its locality. In the plains it is rich, light, marshy, and well adapted for the rice cultivation; among the mountains it is sandy, gipseous, and ferruginous, and abounding with stones of different sorts. The country, taken altogether, is one of the most fertile in this quarter of the world, and although populous, during a season of tranquillity can afford grain for exportation. The chief article is rice of various

kinds and an excellent quality; maize is also cultivated, and different species of yams and leguminous plants. The only European fruit trees that thrive here are the peach, the plum, the pomegranate, citron, and orange. Vines have been planted, but the grapes have not come to maturity. Besides those above-mentioned Tunquin produces all the fruits common to the tropical countries, most of which are described under the article Cochin China. The tea-plant of an inferior sort is said to be plentiful, and it is probable that by attentive cultivation its quality might be improved. Mulberry trees abound, and supply food for the silk-worms. The interior also contains much large timber fit for building, beautiful cabinet woods, particularly that named eagle-wood, of which a considerable quantity is exported, coco-nut and other palms, bamboos and rattans. There are mines of various metals, and iron ore is procured in a state of great purity. It is also asserted that there are tin mines in the mountainous tract near China, the working of which is prohibited. Particles of gold are found in many of the Tunquin rivers, but they are more abundant in the mountain streams of the Shan countries to the west. Salt and saltpetre are plentiful, and the first is reckoned of a superior quality.

Among the animals of Tunquin is found the elephant, which is the sole property of the monarch, and the buffaloe, which is employed for agricultural purposes. The horses are a small contemptible breed; goats and hogs are numerous, as also ducks and poultry, all very cheap. The rhinoceros is only occasionally discovered, but tigers of the largest size abound: there are also some diminutive bears, deer of all sorts, and monkeys of every description. The country generally, but more especially the mountainous parts, is much infested with rats. In Tunquin there are neither hares, sheep, asses, nor camels. The country swarms with vermin, reptiles, and insects, venomous and innocent. Some snakes of great size are found, but their bite is not poisonous. Fish are remarkably plenty, and furnish the inhabitants with a larger proportion of their food than they derive from the terrestrial animals; the fishermen in the maritime parts being fully as numerous as the cultivators. In addition to the common sorts of fish, there are turtle, tortoises, crabs, shell-fish, and molluscas, the substance of which being gelatinous and nutricious, is particularly agreeable to the Chinese, although loathed by Europeans.

The principal articles that compose the internal commerce of Tunquin are rice, fish, fruits, fish-oil, betel-nuts, arrack, salt, vegetable-oils, sugar, molasses, cassia, bamboos, timber, and iron, the natural productions of the country. The manufactured articles are cotton and silk, worked and in thread, writing-paper, wax, varnish, and brass and iron utensils. Among the live animals exposed for sale are elephants, buffaloes, swine, and ducks. At present, the external commerce of the Tunquinese is confined to the coasting trade. To Canton varnish, stick-lac, and woodsand roots for dyeing, are exported. A species of root, called nav by the natives, and shu leong at Canton, forms the dead weight of all the Chinese traders from this country, as it is a very cheap commodity, and furnishes a red dye which might be greatly improved. Tunquin is the only quarter of the Cochin Chinese empire that yields the metals, among which are gold, silver, and iron, the latter so cheap and abundant that it supplies the whole kingdom. In the seventeenth century the Portuguese, Dutch, English, and French, had factories, but they have all long since been abandoned. At present the Chinese are treated with more favour than any other nation, and are allowed to ascend the rivers a privilege also granted to the Portuguese of Macao; but neither are permitted to establish factories on shore.

Besides the articles above enumerated, Tunquin exports areca, ivory, calamine (which is carried to Japan), tortoise-shell, sugar and molasses, a cloth made from the bark of trees, reed and cane mats, cotton and silk (raw and manufactured), and fabrics of mother-of-pearl very neatly worked. From China are imported refined sugar-candy, spices, medicinal plants and drugs, hemp, flax, silk stuffs, mercury, porcelain, glass-work, hardware, and copper and iron vessels. Through the medium of the Europeans, firearms and all warlike materials are procured and monopolized by the government. Along the sea-coast in the different ports commercial affairs with Europeans are transacted through the medium of a bastard sort of Portuguese dialect, and this is also the medium of all political communications with the government.

On account of the fertility of the soil, intersected by numerous rivers, the population of Tunquin is much greater than any other part of the CochinChinese dominions, although it suffered severely during the long and bloody wars that took place towards the conclusion of the last century. In this kingdom there are said to be twelve principal cities, but their names and localities are difficult to discriminate. In 1820, Cachao, situated at about 120 miles from the mouth of a considerable river, was reckoned its capital; but the reigning sovereign resides in Cochin China, only visiting Tunquin occasionally, although it is the richest and most productive portion of his dominions.

Of the ten districts composing the kingdom of Tunquin, the central, named Xunam, is by far the best peopled. This division consists of a vast plain, watered, like Bengal, by numberless navigable streams, is supposed to contain half the population of the country, and in every respect resembles a Chinese province. The total of the inhabitants of Tunquin was estimated by a French missionary, about twenty years ago, at eighteen millions, but this estimate is probably greatly overrated, and he supplies no detail of the facts upon which he grounds his opinion. One tenth of the inhabitants of lower Tunquin are said to live constantly on the water.

The ancient code of Tunquin laws was much venerated previous to the last conquest of the country by Caung Shung, the Cochin Chinese emperor. By Le Roy, the missionary, it is represented as being composed in the most elevated dialect of Chinese, and full of uncommon modes of expression. At present, by the Tunquinese laws, punishments are decreed against all sorts of crimes with great minuteness, but they are badly proportioned, offences against manners and customs being more rigorously punished than crimes essentially dangerous to society.

The Tunquinese in their shape and features greatly resemble the Chinese; but having adopted the practice of blackening the teeth, their appearance is rendered additionally hideous. In this country the ceremony of staining the teeth with a composition takes place when they are sixteen or seventeen years of age, and the change is considered so singularly ornamental, that the natives assert that white teeth are fit for the mouths of dogs. Like the Chinese, the upper classes allow their nails to grow to an immoderate length. The females are marriageable at the age of twelve or thirteen years, and are very prolific. Both sexes are much addicted to the chewing of betel, an employment that suits with their indolent habits. Only extreme necessity can rouse them to any exertion of magnitude; and when their task is accomplished, they relapse into their prior state of sloth and repose. In this respect they differ materially from their Chinese neighbours, who are laborious and industrious by nature and habit.

In Tunquin the flesh of many animals is eaten which, in other countries, is rejected with disgust. The natives here not only eat the flesh of

the rhinoceros, and particular parts of the elephant, but also grasshoppers, monkeys, horses, and dogs, esteeming the last a great delicacy; besides these they eat mountain rats, lizards, and some kinds of worms, and even snakes. Possessing so great a variety of edibles, they never use the milk of any animal in any shape, holding it in extreme aversion, which dislike they extend to butter and cheese. They have the same repugnance to fresh eggs, preferring those that are nearly hatched. Maybugs deprived of their heads and intestines, and silk-worms fried, give much satisfaction to this foul-feeding people. In conformity with the Chinese custom, they never drink cold water, but like it best tepid or approaching to the boiling temperature.

Throughout this kingdom the bulk of the people are not permitted to build houses of masonry, or of several stories; the larger edifices, such as temples and palaces, are generally constructed of wood, or of wood and brick mixed. The wall that separates Tunquin from Cochin China is fifteen feet high and twenty thick, and is extremely ill-built of stone and bricks, the latter for the most part merely baked in the sun. The roads are commonly very bad; but there is one of a superior description from Backing, the former capital, to Phuxuan, the ancient metropolis of Cochin China, said to be 500 miles long. The manufactures of this province are mostly the same as those detailed under the article Cochin China, and it is usual to find all the inhabitants of a village following the same trade. In this country, however, it is dangerous to be known to excel in any profession or art; as the talents of the artificer would be immediately put in requisition to work gratis for the emperor, for the governor of a province, or even for a common mandarin.

The Tunquinese being of Chinese origin their language is monosyllabic, being a modification of the Chinese dialect, but so much changed and corrupted that the spoken language is now wholly unintelligible to a native of the celestial empire, while the written character is well understood, being the same in both countries. Learning is here, as in China, confined to the class of lettered mandarins. Printing is known in Tunquin, but so little practised that some years ago there was said to be only one printing-press in the kingdom. The types are of wood and not moveable, every additional book requiring new plates and characters. Few, however, are printed, and these have in general a reference to law or religion. Their historical works are inaccurate and cannot be depended on. There are a few books on moral subjects, which are mostly translations or commentaries on Chinese books; and the sciences remain perfectly stationary, apparently in the same stage of advancement that they were a thousand years ago.

The religion of the Anam nations (Tunquin and Cochin China) is a modification of the Buddhist system, nearly resembling that which prevails in China, but blended with many local and peculiar superstitions. As in China, the Tunquinese have patriarchal veneration for their parents and ancestors, considering them as tutelary divinities who watch over and protect the families of their descendants, and possessing power in proportion to the sanctity of their lives during their existence on earth. To them sacrifices are offered four times a year, and every third anniversary of their death is celebrated with additional pomp. The higher classes are described as adherents of Confucius, who submit to the worship of images and other ceremonies through deference to public opinion.

Some of the more barbarous tribes of the interior are said to worship the dog and the tiger, both of which they also occasionally eat. Traces of this worship are found among the mountaineers on the eastern borders of Hindostan, as well as in the proper Indo-Chinese nations, the tiger being worshipped by the Hajin tribe,

in the vicinity of the Garrow hills. The Quan-to, an ancient race, who inhabit the Kaubang or mountainous range that divides the Anam countries from China, regard themselves as the original inhabitants of Tunquin and Cochin China, and consider the Anam tribe as a mere Chinese colony, which expelled them from the maritime tracts. The Quanto have a peculiar language, and write with a style on the leaves of a plant termed jiwa in the Anam dialect.—The Moi or Muong are also a mountaineer race, which speak a language different from the Anam, but it is not known whether the Moi be an original tribe or only a branch of the Quan-to.

The Christian religion was first introduced by the Portuguese about the beginning of the seventeenth century, and subsequently, while the French had commercial establishments, they endeavoured to promulgate the benefits of a religion which, even in its most debased and corrupted state, is infinitely superior to the purest of the Indian doctrines.—The English and Dutch had also settlements, but never interfered in religious concerns, their attention being wholly engrossed by their commercial pursuits. At an early period the Jesuits sent missionaries to Tunquin, and had made considerable progress, until being suspected of carrying on a secret political correspondence with the Cochin Chinese, they were expelled. Missionaries were subsequently sent out by Louis the Fourteenth under the character of commercial agents, who settled a factory, intended also to promote the conversion of the Tunquinese. On this event the Portuguese Jesuits returned, and disputes arising betwixt them and the French missionaries, the contest was referred to the Pope, who ordered the Jesuits to quit the country.

During the eighteenth century the exercise of the Christian religion was generally prohibited, sometimes tolerated, and at particular periods persecuted with the utmost cruelty.—The most noted eras of persecution were A. D. 1712, 1722, and 1773, when the Chinese had considerable influence; but after the civil wars commenced, the government lost sight of religion altogether. The year 1790 was the time when the Christian religion experienced the most favourable treatment, missionaries being then permitted to settle under the denomination of mathematicians.

In Tunquin and Cochin China the Catholic missionaries and their converts have suffered much more from the mandarins and inferior officers of government than from the present emperor, who is disposed to be extremely liberal in his religious opinions. He, notwithstanding, exhibits a repugnance to the introduction of all new modes of belief, as an innovation dangerous to a state where custom has the force of law, and an alteration in religion affects the political system.

In addition to these, other obstacles present themselves to the propagation of the Christian religion in Tunquin, among which is the obligation imposed on every subject of contributing to the support and worship of the national idols, and to appear at certain festivals which have both a civil and religious character. The extreme reverence paid to the manes of departed ancestors is also an impediment of considerable weight. The Jesuits tolerated their usages, from which it is not easy to detach the natives, but the court of Rome disapproved of this indulgence. Another objection of great moment with the rich, and with them only, is the renunciation of polygamy and the being obliged after conversion to restrict themselves to one wife. In spite of all these obstacles the Christian religion has in this region made great progress, and if the missionary statements be correct, in A.D. 1800 comprehended in Tunquin 320,000, and in Cochin China 60,000 persons professing that faith.

Tunquin, Cochin China, Cambodia and Siampa are recorded to have an-

ciently formed part of the Chinese empire, but on the Mogul invasion of China in the thirteenth century, the Chinese governors of the southern provinces took that opportunity of setting up the standard of independence. In this manner several distinct kingdoms were created, the sovereigns of which, however, continued to acknowledge for many years afterwards a nominal vassalage to the throne of China. The Tunquinese princes gradually assumed a greater degree of independence, and about A.D. 1553 are asserted to have subdued Cochin China.

For some time before and after the above era the sovereigns of Tunquin, whose title was dova, (probably deva,) were kept under by a series of hereditary prime ministers, named chuas, similar to the Maharatta peshwas in the Deccan and mayors of the palace in France under the second dynasty.

The subsequent history of this country is rather confused, nothing being presented to the mind but a succession of assassinations and revolts, and a perpetual fluctuation of boundaries. About A.D. 1774 a revolution began, which is described at some length under the article Cochin China, and after a sanguinary warfare of twenty-eight years terminated with leaving the Anam empire as it at present exists. Tunquin was finally conquered by Caung Shung, the Cochin Chinese emperor, about the year 1800, and has ever since been ruled by a viceroy delegated from the seat of government.—(*De Bissachere, Leyden, Staunton, Public Journals, &c.*)

Tuppel.—A town in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, forty-eight miles S. by E. from Delhi; lat. 28° 3′ N., lon. 77° 27′ E.

Tupookun.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, twenty miles S.S.E. from Bhadrinath temple; lat. 30° 29′ N., lon. 79° 40′ E. 6,182 feet above the level of the sea.

Tuppa.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty miles from Ashta, which in 1820 contained 300 houses.

Turanna.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty-one miles from Oojein, the capital of a district which in 1820 belonged to Holcar; lat. 23° 18′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E.

Turwun.—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated on the west bank of the river Pata, which in 1820 belonged to the British government; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 78° 23′ E.

Tuptee River.—This river has its source in the province of Gundwana, near the village of Batool, among the Injardy hills, from whence it pursues a westerly direction through the province of Candeish and Gujerat, until it joins the sea about twenty miles below Surat. The whole course, which is very serpentine, and through a fertile country producing much of the cotton exported from Bombay, may be estimated, including the windings, at 460 miles. The shoals crossing the mouths of the Tuptee and Nerbudda are known to the Gujeratties by the names of Shorat and Deijbaroo. The first Mahomedan army that crossed the mountains south of the Tuptee, was led, A.D. 1293, by Allah ud Deen, nephew and successor of Feroze, the reigning sovereign of Delhi.—(*Scott, Drummond, 12th Register, &c.*)

Turivacaray.—A town in the Mysore province, fifty-two miles N. from Seringapatam; lat. 13° 10′ N., lon. 76° 43′ E. In A.D. 1800 this place consisted of an outer and inner fort, strongly defended by a ditch and mud wall, with a pettah at a little distance, containing about 700 houses.

Turon Bay.—A commodious bay in Cochin China, named Hansan by the natives, situated about 16° 7′ north latitude. The channel into this harbour is round the north-east end of the Hansan peninsula, having an island to the north. All the coast is safe to approach, the water shoaling gradually from twenty to seven fathoms. The bottom is mud, and the anchorage safe throughout. A small island within the harbour is nearly

surrounded with such deep water, as to admit of vessels lying close alongside to heave down or refit. At the southern extremity of the harbour is the mouth of the river which leads to Turon. It is about two hundred yards wide, with a depth of two fathoms, and its current into the bay sufficiently strong to excavate a channel through the sand-banks. The rise and fall of the tide is very unequal, at one time only six feet, and at others so high as eleven and twelve feet. In the neighbourhood of Turon, and along the adjoining coast, the winds have been found variable all the year through, the periodical winds losing influence near the shore. September, October, and November compose the rainy season, at which time the rivers inundate the low country.

The town of Turon stands about a mile above the mouth of the river, and as well as the peninsula, harbour, and river, is named by the natives Hansan. The houses it contains are low, and mostly built of bamboos, which are covered with reedy grass or rice straw. The opposite side of the river is divided into fields surrounded by fences, and cultivated with tobacco, rice, and sugar-cane. The market in the town is plentifully supplied with the vegetable produce of a tropical climate, and large quantities of poultry, especially ducks. The bay abounds with fish, and in some of the boats the fishermen reside, with their families, all the year round. Great numbers of flying fish are here taken by letting down into the sea deep earthen vessels with narrow necks, baited with pork or the offals of fish. All the mollusca, and other gelatinous substances, whether animal or vegetable, usually rejected by Europeans, are considered by the natives of this coast as excellent food, and highly nutritious.

This port was in ancient times the chief mart for the trade of Cochin China with the Chinese empire, and that of Japan; but prior to 1793, when it was visited by Lord Macartney, the city of Turon had suffered greatly by the civil wars, and was surrounded by extensive masses of ruins. In 1819 it is described as having once been a populous city, but at that time a mean, filthy place, with a well stocked bazar. In 1787, the peninsula of Hansan or Turon was ceded to the French by the reigning sovereign of Cochin China, in return for assistance promised him; but the French revolution breaking out, possession was never taken. The vessels that resort here at present are either junks from different parts of China, or craft belonging to the Portuguese of Macao. These last carry on a considerable portion of the trade of this country, where they dispose of the refuse of the European goods which they buy up in the Canton market.—(*Staunton; Barrow, &c.*)

Turrah (*or Therah*).—A town in the Gujerat province, situated about half way between Theraud and Rahdunpoor; lat. 23° 52′ N., lon. 71° 41′ E. This is an open town, and in 1809 contained about 2,500 houses, 1,500 of which belonged to Coolies, and the rest to Rajpoots, Banyans, Koonbees, &c. To the north of Therah (at that date the capital of the Kakreze) the country is cultivated, but much interspersed with bush jungle, and deficient of water, which is procured from wells forty feet deep, some of which are brackish.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Tuticorin.—A large town in the Carnatic province and sea-coast of Tinnevelly, ninety miles N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 57′ N., lon. 76° 36′ E. A great proportion of the native population here consists of Parrawars, a class of native Roman Catholics inhabiting the sea-coast of this neighbourhood, and engaged chiefly in the coasting trade.

At this place there is a pearl fishery, but the pearls are reckoned inferior to those found in the bay of Condatchy, in Ceylon, being stained with a blue or greenish tinge. In 1810, the fishery of the Toolayeram Paar pearl-bank was rented to two contractors, who were to have ten days complete fishing with fifty boats,

for which they engaged to pay 34,300 star pagodas. This fishery produced 2,203,658 oysters, of which one-third went to the divers, and two-thirds to the renters; when completed it was relet,

For three days' fishing with sixty boats, for ...Pagodas 10,337
Seventy-five boats afterwards, for three days, sold for 15,787
Four hundred thousand oysters fished afterwards on Government account 7,045

The charges amounted to 550 pagodas, and the Toolayeram bank was then considered so completely fished, that nothing could be expected from it for at least seven years to come. The conducting of this business requires six weeks' constant attention on the part of the superintendent (usually the collector of Tinnevelly), and during its continuance the atmosphere is rendered insupportable by the exposure of so many millions of oysters (probably little short of forty millions) to putrify in the open air. The net produce of this fishery in 1822 was 1,41,886 rupees.

The pearl fishery at Tuticorin is distinctly mentioned by Marco Polo, which establishes the interesting fact, that it has continued nearly in the same state during a period of five centuries, and consequently that with careful management it is likely to prove a permanent source of revenue. Its existence is also noticed by Ptolemy.—(*Hepburn, Marsden, &c.*)

TUXAL.—A town in Northern Hindostan, nine miles S.S.W. from Subhatoo; lat. 30° 53′ N., lon. 76° 57′ E.

TWENTY-FOUR PERGUNNAHS.—A district in the province of Bengal, situated principally to the south of Calcutta, on the east side of the Hooghly river. In extent it comprehends about 882 square miles, and was first formed into a landholder's jurisdiction in 1757, when it was constituted the zemindary of the Company, and jaghire of Lord Clive. In 1765 a ten years' prolongation of the jaghire to Lord Clive was obtained, after which it reverted to the East-India Company. Since that date, from the quantity of waste land brought into cultivation, the number of ghauts or landing places, religious temples, and other substantial buildings constructed, it may be inferred that this territory has been progressively increasing in agriculture, population, and commerce.

In 1801 there were within the limits of the Twenty-four Pergunnahs 190 seminaries, in which Hindoo law, grammar, and metaphysics, were taught, maintained by the voluntary contributions of opulent Hindoos, and the produce of charity lands; total of annual expense, 19,500 rupees. At that time there was but one madrissa, or college for instruction in the Mahomedan law. This small district, although so close to the presidency, has always been greatly infested by dacoits (gang robbers) and river pirates. In 1813 the police was considered to be in a state of evident improvement; but under many disadvantages, owing to its local situation and to its surrounding the actual capital of India, and focus of attraction to the dissolute and dishonest.

The zemindar's profit here is supposed to be considerably more than ten per cent. on the land tax, some, in particular, not paying one rupee per thousand of the rents they actually receive. Many of the existing landholders are, or have been, the dewans of European gentlemen. Indigo is the most valuable commodity raised, but experience proves it to be an article of precarious profit. The planters are obliged to advance cash to the cultivators before a grain of the seed is put into the earth, and the latter is frequently influenced by the zemindars to pervert the money to other purposes and abscond. It is a fact, however, that the peasantry in the neighbourhood of an indigo factory always appear in better plight and more independent of the landholders than elsewhere. In 1814 the produce of the jumma or land-tax amounted to 12,49,103

rupees. The Hindoo inhabitants of the Twenty-four Pergunnahs are reckoned in the proportion of three to one Mahomedan, and the total number have been estimated at 1,625,000 persons. If to these be added the inhabitants of the Calcutta jurisdiction, computed by the police magistrates at 600,000, the total population within twenty miles will amount to 2,225,000 persons.—(*J. Grant, Police Reports, F. Fitzroy, &c.*)

Twenty-four Rajas.—In northern Hindostan, immediately west from Nepaul Proper, is a country of considerable extent, which had long consisted of twenty-four petty states, whose chiefs were collectively called the twenty-four rajas; yet they do not appear to have ever had any common system of defence, or ever to have been connected by any common extraction. They all indeed acknowledge the superiority of the Jemlah raja, who had besides many others in a similar state of dependence: which conferred, however, scarcely any authority on the nominal superior, whose power appears to have been limited to exhortation, and the right of bestowing the tica, or mark of supreme authority, on the heirs of each chief, which they could also do without. His elevated rank, however, was never called in question, and his mediation probably procrastinated the subjugation of all the petty chiefs to one, as at last happened. According to the most authentic list the twenty-four Rajas consisted of the following chiefs, commencing at the Trisoolgunga river and proceeding westward.

1. Gorkha.
2. Tannahung.
3. Palpa.
4. Rising.
5. Ghiring.
6. Gajarcote.
7. Dhor.
8. Bhirkot.
9. Gharahaug.
10. Nayacot.
11. Satahung.
12. Poin.
13. Lamjun.
14. Kaski.
15. Malebum.
16. Galkot.
17. Gulmi.
18. Musseckot.
19. Tarki.
20. Khachi.
21. Argha.
22. Dhurkot.
23. Isma.
24. Peytahn.

Some of these chiefs had entered into leagues of mutual defence, and some were connected by common descent in the chiefs, such as the Athabhai, or Eight Brothers, and the Satbhai, or Seven Brothers.—(*F. Buchanan, Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

Twenty-two Rajas.—In Northern Hindostan, west from the channel of the Rapty, an extensive region commences, usually termed by the natives the country of the twenty-two rajas, but respecting the interior of which very little is known, it never having been the theatre of European warfare, or explored by any native of that leading continent. Each petty rajaship is of course designated from the residence of its chief, but of most of these even the site remains a matter of conjecture. The following very imperfect list contains the names of some of the principal chiefships, the whole of which have long been subordinate to the Gorkha dynasty of Nepaul.

Chhilli.	Jahari.	Gajal.
Dang.	Dharma.	Bangphi.
Saliana.	Rolpah.	Jajarcote.
Malaneta.	Rugun.	Jemlah.
Satatala.	Messikot.	Duti.

U.

Udipu.—A small town in the province of Canara, situated about three miles from the sea, near a small river called the Papasani, thirty-nine miles N.N.W. from Mangalore; lat. 13°25′ N., lon. 74° 48′ E.

Ulraka Khan Peak.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, near a small lake, seventeen miles S.W. from Almora; lat. 29° 23′ N., lon. 79° 26′ E., 7,366 feet above the level of the sea.

Umballah.—A Seik town in the province of Delhi, which in 1822 Captain Ross recommended as the proper station for the superintendent of Seik affairs.

Umbeita.—A small town in the province of Delhi, fifteen miles S.W.

from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 51′ N., lon. 77° 18′ E.

Umber.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, thirty-five miles S.E. from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 38′ N., lon. 76° 2′ E. This place with the small territory attached, although situated far within the limits of the Nizam's dominions, until the treaty of Mundessor, A.D. 1818, belonged to Holcar, and was governed by his officers.

Umlyalla.—A town in the Gujerat province, thirty miles N.N.E. from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 14′ N., lon. 73° 6′ E.

Undana.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, pergunnah of Jawud, which in 1820 belonged to Sindia, and contained about 400 houses; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 74° 58′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Undes (*Urna Desa*).—This is the general name of the tract of country situated between the Cailas and Himalaya ranges of mountains west of Lake Rawan's Hrad, and intersected by the course of the Sutuleje river, which issuing from that lake, flows to the north-west. The Niti ghaut, a pass through the Himalaya, separates the Undes from Bhootant and the sources of the Ganges. This pass is about half a mile broad, and almost destitute of vegetation, which is destroyed by the cold piercing wind that sweeps through from the table-land of Tibet. After surmounting the pass several piles of stones are heaped, on which sticks are seen adorned with rags of different colours, the offerings of travellers, and tokens of their having overcome so difficult an ascent. To the north-west Undes is bounded by Lahdack or little Tibet.

After crossing the Sutuleje a few miles north of Deba, where it is eighty yards broad and three and a half feet deep, there are three villages, painted of different colours, which are the winter residences of the inhabitants of Deba and Dong. The adjacent hills, said to be rich in gold, are composed of granite of mixed colours (the red predominating), with horizontal strata of quartz, and small fibrous veins of a white material like agate, descending perpendicularly. Where the rock has been exposed to the weather its surface is broken into small pieces, having little more cohesion than clay baked in the sun. The gold is separated by washing, there being no fuel in the neighbourhood, or rather no wood, for there is an appearance of coal. In the bed of the Sutuleje there are many large flowering shrubs resembling the tamarisk, rising from three inches to eight feet in height, according to situation. The goats and yaks are fond of its foliage. The latter bite the grass very close to the ground, which fits them to crop the short and scanty herbage of these dreary mountains. On a plain partly bounded by the Sutuleje, about half a mile in length and breadth, are many shallow pits, made by persons in search of gold-dust, and also deserted caves in the rocks originally excavated for the same purpose.

The Undes abound with hares, which are longer on their hind legs, shorter in their bodies, and altogether smaller than those of England, but their fur is both finer and longer: when disturbed they fly to the mountains, but frequently stop and rise on their hind legs to look at their pursuers. They are very prolific, and their flesh well-tasted. Wild horses and asses are occasionally seen, and also the animal with enormous horns called the bharal. The horses appear to be about thirteen hands in height, and are very shy. Animals of a fawn colour about the size of a rat, with long ears, but without tails, are seen in considerable numbers, and also a species of bird resembling the grouse. Rhubarb is seen to the north of the Sutuleje, and the whole tract is famous as the favourite country of the shawl-wool goat. Toling, the residence of the head Lama, stands in lat. 31° 19′ N., lon. 79° 48′ E.

While the Undes continued under the Suryabans (children of the sun)

caste of Rajpoots, and also after it passed under the dominion of the Chinese, the independent Tartars of Lahdack were extremey troublesome to the inhabitants by the frequency of their inroads, and only ceased their depredations in consequence of the country having been bestowed on the Dalai Lama. On this event their religious prejudices influenced them to desist from molesting the subjects of the supreme head of their faith. The last raja (whose father had been killed by the Tartars) was delegated by the principal people to solicit the protection of the Chinese against these depredators, which was accordingly granted; but some time afterwards, as above related, bestowed, but probably only in name, on the grand or Dalai Lama of Lassa. This tract, as may be supposed, is thinly inhabited, and little cultivated. The Uniyas, or inhabitants of Undes, procure their grain from the Jowarries, the Marchas, and other traders through the passes as far as Bussaher, and they are said to eat but little animal food.—(*Moorcroft, &c.*)

Unkie Tunkie.—A strong hill-fort in the province of Aurungabad. The shape of the hill is nearly square, being a solid rock rising from another hill, the sides of which gradually decline towards the low country and the pettah. The rock itself is scarped on its four sides to a perpendicular fall of from 150 to 200 feet, presenting on all sides an inaccessible smooth bluff rock. The upper circumference of the hill is about an English mile, and perfectly flat, except at the east, where rises another small hill about 150 feet above its own base. The summit of this little cone is called Tunkie, and is exactly 900 feet above the level of the low country. It surrendered to a British detachment in 1818, after a feeble resistance.

Upadrang.—A town in the Nepaulese territories, thirty-eight miles W. by S. from Catmandoo; lat. 27° 37′ N., lon. 84° 23′ E.

Uparah.—A fishing village in the Northern Circars, district of Vizagapatam, sixteen miles N.E. from the town of Vizagapatam. This place stands in a deep bay, with bold mountain scenery in the back-ground, and is one of the most considerable fishing stations on the coast. Above one hundred catamarans, besides several massoolah boats, may sometimes be reckoned on the beach.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Ursana.—A town in the province of Agra, thirty miles S. from Alvar; lat. 27° 22′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E.

Ussund.—A small town in the province of Delhi, twenty-five miles S.W. from Kurnal; lat. 29° 31′ N., lon. 76° 35′ E.

Umeerghur.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated to the north of Chitore, on the road from Nusseerabad to that place. This is a good sized town, in the centre of which are three temples ranged in a line, where repose the ashes of a rich merchant, their founder. There is also a manufactory of chintz, and the place in 1824 bore the appearance of prosperity. Above it, on a high rock, stands a castle, which in 1823 was conquered for the rana of Odeypoor from a rebellious Thakoor. —(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

V.

Vadagarry.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, seventy-seven miles N. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 12′ N., lon. 77° 36′ E. During the wars of the Carnatic, from 1740 to 1760, this place was possessed by a tributary poligar, who gave a great deal of trouble, both to the nabob of the Carnatic and to the East-India Company.

Vadagherry (*or Vadacuray*).—A Moplay town on the sea-coast of the Malabar province, twenty-four miles N. by W. from Calicut; lat. 11° 42′ N., lon. 75° 40′ E.

Vakaleer (*Waculeray*). — A small town in the Mysore raja's ter-

ritories, nine miles S.W. from Colar; lat. 13° 4′ N., lon. 78° 6′ E.

VADAVATI RIVER.—This river has its source in the Mysore province, near to the Bababooden hills, from whence it flows almost due north, until after a course of about 200 miles, including windings, it joins the Toombudra twenty miles above Adoni. It is also named the Hajini and the Pajini.

VAYGAROO RIVER *(or Vyaur)*.—A river in the south of India, which after passing close to Madura, and traversing the zemindaries of Shevagunga and Ramnad, is almost wholly absorbed in a large tank, twenty miles south of Tondi. The dry sandy bed of this river is of great breadth throughout its whole course, and after passing Madura, its waters are so diverted from their channel for the purposes of irrigation, that its bed at Ramnad is usually dry throughout the year, and only contains water when the floods are unusually great. (*Medical Reports, Fullarton, &c.*)

VALOOR.—A town in the Salem district, fifty-two miles W.N.W. from Trichinopoly; lat. 11° 2′ N., lon. 78° 1′ E.

VEERGOON.—A town and fortress in the province of Cutch, about thirty miles N.W. from Mandavie.

VEERUNGAUM.—A pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, which in 1818 was more than one-half waste, and in 1820 suffered much by a severe frost, which destroyed the cotton and greatly injured all the other crops. The principal towns are the Capital, Mandul, and Patree. They are surrounded by high walls, those of the two first being still in good repair. The population of Veerungaum town in 1820 was estimated at from 15,000 to 20,000 persons, two-thirds Hindoos and the rest Mahomedans. The houses are well-built, few unoccupied, and the inhabitants appear in thriving circumstances.—(*J. A. Dunlop, &c.*)

VEESARAREE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, twenty-two miles N.E. from Surat; lat. 21° 25′ N., lon. 73° 23′ E.

VEHY.—A small district in the province of Cashmere, described by Abul Fazel as producing much saffron.

VELANGHENA.—A small military post in the island of Ceylon, district of Upper Ouva, which is probably the highest inhabited spot in Ceylon; lat. 6° 44′ N., lon. 81° 7′ E., forty-three miles S.S.E. from Candy. The summit of the Idalgashina pass, from Suffragam to Upper Ouva, is about 4,700 feet above the level of the sea; but Velanghena is two miles distant in a straight line, and about 700 yards lower down. On the 20th March 1819 the thermometer stood here at fifty-seven degrees before sunrise.—(*Davy, &c.*)

VELAUR.—A river in the Carnatic of the second class, which rises among the mountains of the Salem district, and after a course of above 100 miles, and receiving various contributory streams, enters the sea below Porto Novo.

VELERETE.—A cluster of rocks in the Eastern seas, situated to the south of the island of Formosa, which may be seen from them; lat. 21° 55′ N., lon. 121° 30′ E.

VELLORE *(Velur)*.—A town and fortress in the Carnatic province, to which a district was formerly attached, situated in lat. 12° 57′ N., lon. 79° 11′ E., eighty miles W. by S. from Madras. By the natives it is named Ray Ellore, to distinguish it from Ellore in the Northern Circars.

This was formerly a post of great importance, as it commanded the main road leading to the Upper Carnatic from the valley of Veniambady, which is the most direct route to and from the Mysore. The walls of the fort are built of very large stones, with bastions and round towers at short distances. A *fausse-bray* lines the walls between them, which with its embattled rampart and small overhanging square towers has a handsome effect. A deep and wide ditch, cut chiefly out of the solid

rock, surrounds the whole fort except at one entrance, where there was a causeway according to the Hindostany system; and in addition to the usual means of defence, the ditch contains alligators of a very large size. The fortress is so completely commanded by the hills, that a six-pounder can throw a shot over it; but the conquest of Mysore has rendered it now comparatively of little importance.

Vellore fortress is of such extent that it contains within a square of handsome buildings, besides spacious barracks, every necessary accommodation for a garrison. The great pagoda on one side of the square is used for a magazine. From the attributes of the statues, sculptured of blue stone, which still ornament its front, and the frequent images of the bull Nandi, recumbent on the ledges of the walls, it may be inferred that Siva was the deity worshipped. The pettah of Vellore lies to the south of the fort close under the hills, and joined by connecting battlements with the old castellated works on the triple peaks above. It is a large and populous town, with an exceedingly busy bazar, containing many good houses, interspersed with a large proportion of Mussulman tombs, thickly wooded with coco-nut trees, but without any public buildings of note, the white-washed mosque of Chundah Saheb being the most remarkable edifice. Connected with the fortified rocks above the town is a barrier wall and fosse, stretching across from their base to the margin of the Palaur, with a gateway that commands the high road to Arcot.

The Mahomedan states of Golconda and Bejapoor possessed themselves of Vellore and Chandergherry in A.D. 1646. In 1677 Sevajee made an unexpected irruption into the Carnatic, and captured this place and Ginjee. During the war of 1782 it was relieved by Sir Eyre Coote in the face of Hyder's whole army. After the conquest of Seringapatam and the destruction of the short-lived Mahomedan dynasty, Tippoo's family, consisting of twelve sons and eight daughters, were for security removed to Vellore. Futteh Hyder, the eldest but illegitimate son, had twelve or fourteen children. The four elder sons were allowed 50,000 rupees, and the younger children 25,000 rupees each per annum. The females were nearly 800 in number, and were handsomely provided for, their condition being altogether much better than it would have been under any successor of Tippoo's. They had been collected from many quarters, and each furnished her apartment according to the fashion of her own country.

On the 10th of July 1806 a most atrocious revolt and massacre of their officers and Europeans took place, perpetrated by the native troops belonging to the garrison, in which, from evidence taken immediately after the event, it was proved the family of Tippoo (more especially the eldest, Moiz ud Deen) took an open and active share. The insurgents were subdued, and mostly put to the sword by Colonel Gillespie and a party of the nineteenth dragoons; and to prevent the recurrence of a similar calamity, the instigators were removed to Bengal. So late as 1820, Vellore still continued one of the principal stations of the Madras army. Travelling distance from Madras eighty-eight miles, from Seringapatam 202 miles.—(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Rennell, Wilks, &c.*)

Vellum.—A town in the Carnatic province and Tanjore district, eight miles S.W. from Tanjore; lat. 10° 37′ N., lon. 79° 5′ E. There are here the ruins of a large mud fort, formerly occupied by a British garrison.

Vencatagherry (*Vencatagiri*).—A town and zemindary in the proviuces of Salem and Barramahal, but now included in the Nellore district; lat. 13° 1′ N., lon. 78° 33′ E. fifty-four miles W. by N. from Vellore. This place was formerly the residence of Redda Naik Poligar, and the ruins of his fort in A.D. 1800 were still conspicuous. The inhabi-

tants were then nearly all Telingas or Gentoos, as they are called by the English at Madras. This place is also named Vencatadri, and formerly possessed a celebrated temple. —(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

VENIAMBADY.—A village in the Barramahal district, forty-five miles S.W. from Vellore; lat. 12° 41′ N., lon. 78° 43′ E. This place stands on an island formed by the Palar river, and has a very pleasing appearance, being surrounded with trees, which are usually scarce in the Barramahal, and situated in a fine plain encompassed by hills. During the wet season the Palar frequently commits great devastation, and it rises highest when the rains prevail on the coast of Coromandel. There is a mud fort here, filled internally with native habitations, and at some distance to the west of the Palar are two temples of note, dedicated to Siva and Vishnu.

The estate or subdivision of Veniambady comprehends five villages, *viz.* Veniambady, on an island; Mulpater, Chenampettah, and Meetapalum, on the north side of the Palar; and Govindpoor on the south side. Mulpater is almost entirely inhabited by Brahmins, and is the most populous; Govindpoor by Lubbee or Mahomedan merchants. Weavers of the coarse fabrics termed gunnies, and of floor-mats, are the most numerous classes in Chenampettah, and cultivators at Meetapalum. In Veniambady all the indigenous races of natives are found.—(*A. H. Hamilton, F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

VENCATACHELLUM.—A small village in the Carnatic province, district of Nellore, about nine miles south from the town of Nellore. At this place there is a poor mud choultry, and a good bungalow for the accommodation of travellers, situated on an elevated spot near the margin of a considerable lake.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

VERAMALLY.—A town in the Carnatic, twenty-three miles S.W. from Trichinopoly; lat. 10° 39′ N., lon. 78° 35′ E. At this place there is a hill remarkable for the detached masses of stone which lie on its summit. Many of these have narrow bases, and rest on much smaller stones, while some merely rest on a point, and appear almost to totter on their support.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

VERAPADROOG.—A remarkable hill fort in the Barramahal district, sixteen miles S.E. from Ryacotta.

VERDACHELUM.—A town in the Carnatic province, forty miles S.S.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 11° 31′ N., lon. 79° 28′ E. In A.D. 1813, in consequence of the district court of South Arcot being established here, and the great want of accommodation for the public servants and their adherents, an advance of 2,000 pagodas was authorized for the construction of new houses and the improvement of the town, to which subsequently 2,000 more were added, to be advanced in loan to such persons as could give security for their repayment by instalments within a moderate period of time. Verdachelum was then small, thinly inhabited, and selected originally for head-quarters merely on account of its central position; but very soon, in consequence of some new arrangements, by which the boundaries of Trichinopoly and South Arcot were altered, the situation of the court at this place became extremely inconvenient, being placed within six miles of one boundary, and 120 distant from its northern limit.

Under these circumstances many places became more central and eligible, and it appears surprising that the choice of the stations in the Carnatic for the establishment of district courts should so seldom have fallen on towns, where there already existed structures of size and strength sufficient for the purposes of court-houses and gaols, and that, in substituting for the civil and criminal judicature of the native governments, our own system of judical administration, we should have had to incur the same expenditure, as if we had entered a country wholly uncivillized. Had

proper stations been originally selected, the subsisting and increasing expenditure of the judicial department, for the erection and repairs of court-houses and gaols, &c. would have been moderated; but a preliminary and essential error in local position, involves a total loss of all that had been previously expended. Neither does it appear that the discovery of defects, by subsequent experience, is sufficiently applied to the correction and improvement of future constructions; and after so many experiments the best model of a district gaol seems as little decided as at the beginning. Owing to the geographical changes, it is highly probable the court of justice here will experience another removal, on which event, after the sacrifice of all the sums expended on its public and private improvement, Verdachellum will revert to its original insignificance.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

VERSOVAH.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the sea-coast of the island of Salsette, fourteen miles N. from Bombay; lat. 19° 8′ N., lon. 72° 54′ E.

VEYPAR *(or Bipar)*.—A town in the Carnatic province, on the sea-coast of the Tinnevelly district, 101 miles N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 7′ N., lon. 78° 42′ E.

VICTORIA FORT *(or Bancoot)*.—A small fortress situated on a lofty hill near the entrance of the Bancoot river, seventy-three miles S. by E. from Bombay; lat. 17°56′ N., lon. 73° 12′ E. The river was formerly navigable for large ships, but the sand-bank at the mouth constantly increasing during the south-west monsoon, it now only admits the entrance of small vessels. In 1756 it was a piratical station, when conquered by Commodore James in concert with the Maharattas, who ceded it with nine poor villages in exchange for Gheriah. In 1820 Fort Victoria and Malwan were consolidated with the Southern Concan district.

VICTOIRE ISLE.—A very small island in the Eastern seas, covered with wood; lat. 1° 39′ N., lon. 106° 30′ E. On the south-west side of this island is a small bay or creek, and S.E. by E., distant three leagues, lies a small white island.

VIJAYAPOOR *(or Bijaypoor)*.—The modern capital of the Morung, situated in lat. 26° 56′ N., lon. 87°12′ E.; eighty miles N. by W. from Purneah, and subject to the Nepaulese. This town stands on the higher part of the lower hills, and is so free from the unhealthy air of that region termed owl, that it is said the people here can eat seventy-five per cent. more than those in the low lands, a test of the comparative salubrity of different places frequently referred to by the natives of India. The fortress is always garrisoned by Gorkha regulars, and is the residence of a commander, who superintends the neighbouring civil officers and watches over the frontier. In A.D. 1774 the Gorkhas attacked Vijayapoor, and assassinated as many of the legitimate family as they could seduce within their power by treachery and breach of pledged faith. The last heir, aged only five years, was destroyed by having a loathsome disease communicated to him by a Brahmin, in place of the small-pox inoculation.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

VINDHYA MOUNTAINS.—The Vindhyan chain of mountains, by which the great Gangetic chain is bounded on the south, commences in the province of Bahar, from whence it probably extends to Ramisseram in the straits of Ceylon, near to what is called Cape Comorin by Europeans. One ridge of hills begins at Rhotas and Sasseram on the banks of the Sone, passes behind Mirzapoor and Allahabad, and between Banda and Singpoor takes a sweep to the south, then bends north to Gualior, and from thence behind Agra and Delhi, being the northern boundary of the Vindhyan mountains, but in this quarter it no where attains any great altitude. The portion of this ridge that passes through Bundelcund has a very similar appearance to the part

of the same range that passes through the Shahabad district in the province of Bahar, only it is less sterile and rugged, for trees in most parts ascend to the summit of the hills, and it is only in particular parts that the table-land is bounded by an abrupt precipice of rock, such as surrounds the whole eastern end of the ridge. On the summit of this northern range is a table-land of great extent, from 500 to 1,200 feet perpendicular height above the level of the Gangetic plain.

In the south this chain extends east and west along the valley of the Nerbudda river to an unknown distance east and west, and may be termed the southern wall or buttress of the elevated plateau of Malwa. It is only in a few detached spots, however, that it attains a greater height than 2,000 feet, but the Shaizghur, the highest peak of the Mandoo range, rises to 2,628 feet above the level of the sea. The city of Indore is 1,998 feet, and the descent to the valley of Nerbudda by the Jaum ghaut, about thirty miles to the southward, is steep and abrupt, but the ascent from the north is much more gradual. A good description of the Vindhyan mountains, with all their spurs and ramifications, is much wanted—(*F. Buchanan, Malcolm, &c.*)

VINGORLA.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, district of Concan, twenty-nine miles N.W. from Goa; lat. 15° 48′ N., lon. 73° 47′ E. This small section of territory, the total revenue of which is 3,000 rupees per annum, was ceded in 1812 by the ranny of Sawuntwarree.

VINGUL.—A town in the province of Lahore, thirty-four miles N.E. from Belaspoor; lat. 31°44′ N., lon. 77°1′ E. In this vicinity there are salt mines.

VIRANCHIPURA *(or Brinjeveram)*. —An open town in the Carnatic province, seven miles and a half from Vellore; lat. 12° 54 N., lon. 78° 57′ E. This was formerly a large place, and possessed many public buildings, Hindoo and Mahomedan; but the whole suffered greatly during the wars of last century with Hyder. A large temple dedicated to Iswara escaped the destruction that befel the rest, owing to its being surrounded by a strong wall of cut granite, which excluded irregulars; and Hyder did not, like his son Tippoo, take any delight in demolishing temples. Viranchipura and Brinjeveram are one and the same, although up to 1820 laid down in the best maps as distinct towns, at a considerable distance from each other. —(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

VIRAPELLY *(Varapali)*.—A town on the Malabar coast belonging to the raja of Cochin, nine miles N.E. from the city of Cochin; lat. 10° 5′ N., lon. 76° 20′ E. This is the residence of the apostolic vicar of the Roman Catholic Christians, who superintends sixty-four churches, exclusive of the forty-five governed by the archbishop of Cranganore, and also of the large dioceses under the bishops of Cochin and Quilon, whose churches extend to Cape Comorin. There is here a seminary, a catechumen-house, and a convent of bare-footed Carmelites, who have the care of the different establishments on the Malabar coast. The monastery was founded A.D. 1673.—(*F. Buchanan, Fra. Paolo, &c.*)

VIRNAUGH *(Viranaga)*.—A village in the province of Cashmere, thirty-seven miles S.E. from the city of Cashmere. The country in this neighbourhood produces apples, pears, peaches, apricots, cherries, and mulberries, besides the red and white rose, and an infinite variety of flowering shrubs. Except the mulberry, few of the fruits or vegetables of Hindostan are produced here. Near to Virnaugh a torrent of water bursts from a mountain, and soon forms a considerable stream. A basin of a square form has been constructed, it is said by the emperor Jehangire, to receive the water when it reaches the plain.—(*Forster, &c.*)

VISHNU-PRAYAGA.—A prayaga or holy junction of two rivers in Northern Hindostan; lat. 30° 34′ N., lon. 79° 4′ E.

VIZAGAPATAM.—This is the second district into which the Northern Circars were divided, and is principally situated between the seventeenth and nineteenth degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Ganjam; on the south by Rajamundry; to the east it has the bay of Bengal; and on the west the hilly and woody province of Gundwana. This district is mountainous, a lofty ridge running parallel and frequently close to the sea-shore, along nearly its whole extent, separated from another chain to the westward by a narrow, and generally cultivated valley. In many of the villages the peasants' dwellings present only a mud wall towards the street, within which a group of detached mud huts of a circular form are discovered. All the hamlets are well wooded; and in the better class the houses are neatly white-washed, and generally provided with low terraced benches in front, coloured red with transverse white lines.

The climate and productions so entirely resemble those of Ganjam, and its internal distribution into talooks and zemindaries is so exactly similar, as to render all details on these subjects unnecessary. Up to 1820 the cultivation of cotton on a large scale had not been attempted, that plant requiring a good soil and great care, and being injured by too much as well as too little rain. Most ryots, however, sow a small patch of land with cotton-seed for the immediate use of their families. The principal towns are Vizagapatam, Bimlipatam, Vizianagrum, and Bobilee. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 4,32,138 star pagodas; and in 1822, according to the returns made by the collectors to the Madras presidency, the total population was estimated at 738,398 persons.—(*Fullarton, Parliamentary Reports, Hodgson, &c.*)

VIZAGAPATAM.—A town in the Northern Circars, the capital of the preceding district; lat. 17° 42′ N., lon. 83° 24′ E. The hills here form a kind of promontory at what is called the Dolphin's Nose, a mountain about 1,500 feet high, which projects into the sea, and forms with those a little to the north a kind of bay. This range of hills continues along shore at a small distance from the sea as far as Tuny, where they take a south-west direction. A small river coming from the north, and turning short eastward to the shore, forms a kind of marshy estuary, separated from the sea by an arm of land, nearly in the middle of which stands the fort of Vizagapatam.

This is now a place of no strength, its works consisting merely of a thick wall of masonry, without ditch or other defence, the whole situated in the heart of the town, of which it in a manner forms a portion, and enclosing the zillah court, hospital and other European buildings, besides a wide and handsome colonnaded bazar. The barracks and other public edifices compose part of a square without the walls. The population is not great, but there are a considerable number of well-built houses, European and native, which stretch along the northern margin of the estuary in a long straggling line, shut out from the view of the sea by the ridge behind, and darkened by the foliage of the tamarind, coco-nut, and other trees. Two picturesque conical rocks rise from the extreme point of the peninsula, and flank the entrance of the harbour to the north, as the Dolphin's Nose does to the south. These, with the mountainous scenery in the back-ground, and the little white temples seen through the foliage, or perched on the most remarkable eminences, produce altogether a very striking landscape. Owing, however, to its extreme insalubrity, Vizagapatam has of late years been almost totally deserted, most of the European community having retired to Waltier, a village near the sea on the further declivity of the peninsula. During the ebb the surf here is very considerable, and as European boats, for want of massoola craft, are obliged frequently to

to go in to escape being upset, they ought to keep close to the Dolphin's Nose. At Semachillum, near to this place, there is a Hindoo temple of great fame and antiquity.

In A.D. 1689, in the reign of Aurengzebe, during a rupture between that monarch and the English East-India Company, their warehouses here were seized, and all the residents of that nation put to death. In 1757 it was captured by M. Bussy, and was acquired along with the rest of the province by Lord Clive in 1765. Travelling distance from Madras, 483 miles; from Nagpoor, 394; from Hyderabad, 355; and from Calcutta, 557 miles.—(*Fullarton, Orme, Johnson, &c.*)

Viziadroog.—A commodious seaport in the province of Bejapoor and sea-coast of the Concan, which after Bombay may be considered the best harbour on the coast, there being no bar in the river or hidden dangers. The common perpendicular rise of the tide is eight or nine feet, in the neaps five feet. The river is said to be navigable twenty-five miles inland for vessels under 200 fathoms, and near the mouth ships of less than 700 tons may anchor in perfect safety, sheltered from all winds.—(*Lieut. Dominicite, &c.*)

Vizianagrum.—A town and large zemindary in the Northern Circars, thirty-five miles N. by W. from Vizagapatam; lat. 18° 4′ N., lon. 83° 30° E. This place is situated in a rich, undulated country, at the foot of a group of hills, with the large masses of the Eastern Ghauts about twelve miles distant. It is an extensive town with a spacious, busy bazar, but the buildings generally mean and village-like. A quadrangular stone fort, with four enormous round bastions, encloses the palace of the Raja, an open square in the centre, an arcaded hall of audience, reservoir and fountains, but the whole in a neglected state and without any pretensions to magnificence. To the south is a fine artificial lake, and on the high ground beyond is a small cantonment, where a detachment of Madras sepoys is usually stationed. Oranges in great perfection are raised in the neighbourhood of Vizianagrum.

In 1817, the zemindar agreed to mortgage his estate to government until the bonded debt he owed was discharged, which when consolidated amounted to twelve lacks of rupees, all European claims being disallowed. In pursuance of this object the government issued six per cent. bonds to pay off the creditors, so that it became the sole creditor, the zemindar receiving 80,000 rupees per annum for his subsistence. In 1822, the whole of the outstanding public debt having been discharged, the estates were restored to the zemindar. —(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Vizierabad.—A town in the province of Lahore, situated on the south-eastern bank of the Chinaub or Acesines, fifty-eight miles N. from the city of Lahore; lat. 32° 23′ N., lon. 73° 57′ E. At some former period it appears to have been named Mouara.

Volconda.—A town in the Carnatic, seventy miles S.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 21° 18′ N., lon. 79° 7 E. During the Carnatic wars of the last century this was a strong post, its principal defence being a rock 200 feet high, and about a mile in circumference at the bottom.

Vyaur River.—See Vaygaroo River.

W.

Wadjo *(Waju.)* A state or confederacy in the island of Celebes, situated to the north of the principality of Boni. The original country of the Wadjoos is in the centre of Celebes, on the banks of an extensive fresh water lake, named Tapara Karaja, about twenty-four miles in breadth, the outlet to which is navigable for boats of twenty tons.

The natives of Wadjo have long been noted for their enterprize and

intelligence, and for the extent of their commercial speculations. They have colonized and traded in almost every island of the archipelago, from Manilla to Acheen, and from Siam to Papua, the parent country not being now the chief seat of commerce. In fact, they are the sole native traders throughout the eastern archipelago, all the other tribes confining themselves to coasting voyages. Their voyages commence in the beginning of the easterly monsoon, when they proceed westward until they reach Rhio, Malacca, Penang, and Acheen, the western limit, from whence they return when the monsoon changes. Their exports are excellent durable cotton cloths of home manufacture, gold-dust, nutmegs, Spanish dollars, birds'-nests, camphor, benzoin, and tortoise-shell. They return with opium, European broad-cloth, European and Indian cotton goods, unwrought iron, and tobacco.

Besides these more important voyages, many subordinate ones are undertaken to collect birds'-nests, ornamental-feathers, tortoise-shell, and sea-slug or biche-de-mar, principally procured from the coast of New Holland, to which they send about fifty vessels of from twenty to fifty tons annually. A vessel of twenty tons, manned with twenty-five men, is considered successful if she have obtained 7,000 weight of sea-slug, all intended for the Chinese market. This traffic is, in fact, set in motion by the resident Chinese merchants, who advance from two to three hundred Spanish dollars, according to the extent of the equipment, securing to themselves the refusal of the cargo.

In A.D. 1775, this country was governed by forty regents, among whom women as well as men were admitted. From amongst these two chiefs were selected, one for warlike affairs, stiled patara, and the other to administer civil affairs, named padinraug. In addition to these was the matowra, or elected king, who acted as president of the whole, forming altogether a sort of federal aristocracy, the nature of which has not yet been rendered intelligible. Indeed the interior of Wadjo does not appear to have been ever visited by any European. At that date the Wadjoos were rich, commercial, and nearly independent of the Dutch. In 1814, one of the complaints against the reigning raja of Boni was his unjust and tyrannical conduct towards the Wadjo merchants, to the total ruin of these inoffensive people, the detriment of his own subjects, and infinite loss to the British goverment, by the destruction of the commerce they carried on.—(*Crawfurd, Stavorinus, Raffles, &c.*)

Wageeoo Isle.—One of the Papuan islands, situated about the 131st degree of east longitude, and within the first degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at ninety miles, by twenty-two the average breadth.

On the north coast of this island is a harbour formed by the island of Rawak, on which grows the ambong tree, the heart of which is an excellent cabbage; and here sago cakes, baked hard, are to be purchased in large quantities, as are also fish and turtle. To the latter the Malays of the Eastern isles have in general an antipathy. There are not any goats or fowls here. On the north-west coast of Wageeoo there is another harbour named Piapis, situated in lat. 6° 5′ S., lon. 130° 15′ E. It is formed by two capacious bays, where there is fresh water, and plenty of tall timber fit for masts. In both these bays there are good soundings, and on a small island named Sisipa is a pond of fresh water, with sago trees in the vicinity; the ambong or cabbage-tree also abounds. Along the northern coast generally water is to be procured from rivers or stagnate pools, not far from the shore. The gigantic Kima cockle is found in plenty among the coral reefs, and makes an excellent stew with the heart of the cabbage-tree.

On the west side of Wageeoo is a deep bay, before which lie many small low islands, mostly covered with trees. The largest of these is not a mile and a half in circumference, and some are not half a mile. These islets produce the sugar-cane, from which the inhabitants express the juice. The Mahomedans subsist in a great measure on fish and sago-bread, and eat biche-de-mar, which is also a favourite food of the native Papuas: it is eaten raw, cut up in small pieces, and mixed with salt and lemon juice. The natives assert that in the centre of the island there is a large lake containing many islands, but it is more probably a bay that deeply indents the coast, as in Celebes and Gilolo. The hills here are of sufficient height to attract the clouds, and cause the descent of a considerable quantity of rain.

The island is well inhabited; on the sea-coast by Mahomedans, and in the interior by the aborigines, who are mostly mop-headed Papuas. In all the harbours the Malay tongue is spoken and understood. A French voyager asserts, that in 1792 the inhabitants of Wageeoo had declared war against the Dutch, and joined with the natives of Ceram in an attack on Amboyna.—(*Forrest, Labillardiere, &c.*)

WAGUR *(or Choorwagur.)*—A district in the province of Cutch, of which it forms the eastern portion as distinguished from the Runn, and has the shape of a peninsula, being nearly surrounded by that enormous morass and the gulf of Cutch. The interior is somewhat elevated and woody, with various small streams and watercourses falling into the Runn.

The people of Wagur are Mahomedans, and long noted for their predatory habits, which obtained for their country the distinctive appellation of Choor Wagur, or the Wagur of thieves. A considerable part of the district was formerly subject to the nabobs of Rahdunpoor, but these princes falling into decay, and being unable to enforce their claims, the tribute has not for a considerable time been exacted. In later times the rows of Cutch have claimed feudal superiority over the whole, but its chiefs appear to have been nearly independent, paying tribute when compelled, and plundering when occasion offered. It was in fact first thoroughly subdued by the British to protect the territories of their allies and dependents. In effecting this many native dens and fortresses were destroyed, and their predatory chiefs expelled; the remainder yielded to a foreign yoke in preference to the supremacy of their natural chief and nominal superior the row of Cutch. — (*Macmurdo, Carnac, &c.*)

WAKROO.—A village in the British district of Martaban, which according to native report was the original seat of the Martaban princes, and is still considered as a valuable outpost. In 1825 the stockade was found demolished by the Siamese, and the post deserted. The Wakroo river is here deep and muddy, and about forty yards across.

WALAJANAGUR.—A large town in the Carnatic province, situated on the north-side of the Palaur river, sixty-five miles W. by S. from Madras; lat. 11° 40′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E. It was built by Mahomed Ali Walajah, and named after himself. To people it the inhabitants were removed from Lalpetteh and other places, which with the Mussulman princes of Hindostan was a common practice. It soon after had the misfortune to fall into the hands of Hyder, who did not spare it, but on the restoration of peace it was again fostered by the nabob. At present it is one of the cleanest and most neatly built towns of India, but the houses, though large, are only one story high, and roofed with tiles. Two excellent modern choultries have been lately built, one at each extremity of the town. A great proportion of the trade between the

country above the Eastern Ghauts and the sea centres here; and it is said a larger assortment of goods can be procured at Walajanagur than in any town to the south of the Krishna, Madras excepted. The transportation of merchandize is effected by large parties of inland carriers, who possess numerous droves of oxen, there being no internal navigation, and few roads fit for wheeled carriages.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, Heyne, &c.*)

WALLAJABAD.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Chingleput, fourteen miles travelling distance N.W. from Chingleput town. At this place there are extensive military cantonments, consisting of two low ranges of barracks for Europeans, besides accommodations for native troops; but in 1820, so altered was its comparative importance, that only one regiment of Madras infantry was stationed here.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

WALLER.—A small town in the province of Aurungabad, division of Jooneer, about thirty-eight miles travelling distance S.S.E. from Poona.

WALTIER.—A small village in the Northern Circars, situated in the bay of Vizagapatam, about three miles and a half from the town of Vizagapatam, with which it communicates by an excellent road across the intervening ridge. Below this village towards the beach is a group of houses, where the civil servants attached to the Vizagapatam station, and other European inhabitants, principally reside. The mountains along this part of the coast present a bold front towards the sea, forming a grand sweep to the north-east of Waltier, where they appear to terminate in an isolated conical eminence called the Sugar-loaf Hill.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

WALAK.—A subdivision of the Gujerat peninsula, which having passed from the Catties to the Coolies, who in their turn were expelled by the Bhownugger raja, has since been classed with Goelwara.

WALURU.—A town in the Mysore province in the neighbourhood of Bangalore, which in A.D. 1800 contained 500 houses. Here are distilleries of country rum, into which the astringent bark of the mimosa enters as an ingredient. Their mode of condensing the liquor is very rude, and the spirit never being rectified by a second distillation, is execrable. The soil of some of the gardens at Waluru is remarkable deep, twenty feet of it having been penetrated to arrive at water.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

WANDIA.—A town in the province of Cutch, district of Wagur, situated on the north side of the Runn, immediately opposite to Mallia; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 70° 43′ E.

WANDIPOOR.—A town in the province of Bootan, about twenty-four miles travelling distance from Tassisudon in an easterly direction, and esteemed by the Bootanners a place of great strength; lat. 27° 31′ N., lon. 89° 57′ E. It stands on the narrow extremity of a rock between the Matchieu, the Patchieu, and the Tehintchieu rivers, whose streams unite at its sharpened point, and form a river of considerable magnitude, which takes the title of Chantchieu, and flows south through the Rungpoor district, where it rejoices in the name of Gudadhar, and soon afterwards joins the Brahmaputra not far from Rangamatty. At Wandipoor there is a bridge of turpentine fir of 112 feet span, without the least iron in its construction, yet it is said to have lasted 150 years without exhibiting any symptom of decay. Owing to the peculiarity of its position, Wandipoor appears to be agitated by a perpetual hurricane. This is one of the consecrated towns of Bootan, where a considerable number of gylongs or monks are established.—(*Turner, &c.*)

WANDIWASH.—A town in the Carnatic province, seventy-three miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 30′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E. In September 1759 the British troops attacked this place,

but were repulsed with great slaughter; it was however subsequently taken by Colonel Coote with scarcely any loss. In January 1760 a decisive battle was fought here between the French army under M. Lally and the British under Colonel Coote, in which the first were totally defeated, and never afterwards made a stand. The brunt of this action fell wholly on the Europeans of the two armies, while the sepoys looked on, and after it was over the sepoy native commandants, complimenting Colonel Coote on the victory, thanked him for the sight of such a battle as they never had before witnessed.—(*Orme, &c.*)

WANKANEER.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on an angle formed by the conflux of the river Muchoo with an inferior stream named the Patalia; lat. 22° 27′ N., lon. 70° 58′ E. It is long and narrow, and surrounded by a great wall with towers and bastions, comprehending, in 1809, about 5,000 houses and a good bazar. A pious Mahomedan sheikh has here erected an elegant mosque; but the sacred recess for prayer not looking due west towards Mecca, the whole is rendered useless. Wankaneer lies so directly under a range of lofty mountains that it is entirely commanded, and during the rains the Patalia inundates the streets. In the dry season, however, it diminishes to a slender stream in a low bed, owing to which circumstance its name is derived from Patala, the infernal regions.—(*Macmurdo, Walker, &c.*)

WANNY.—A district in the interior of Ceylon, situated towards Trincomalee, in the north-eastern quarter. This is a fine flat country, and well adapted for the cultivation of rice, which from remaining vestiges would appear to have been formerly raised in large quantities. The ruins of 600 tanks, some of great extent, are still to be seen; and the territory seems to have been in a state of great prosperity prior to its occupation by the Dutch, since which event it has declined. At different periods its Wannys or princes, taking advantage of the wars between the Candian sovereigns and their European enemies, endeavoured to establish an authority independent of both; but they finally, after their country had been desolated by all parties, submitted to the Dutch. The road through Wanny from Vertavivo to Molletivo presents the shortest route between Columbo and Trincomalee, so that its inhabitants formerly sustained much pillage and vexation from the troops and their followers; but these atrocities were entirely suppressed during the government of the Earl of Guilford, and the district has ever since been in a progressive state of improvement.—(*Bertolacci, &c.*)

WARANGOL.—An ancient city in the Hydrabad province, seventy-seven miles N.E. from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 17° 54′ N., lon. 79° 34′ E. This place was founded A.D. 1067, at which era it is supposed to have been the metropolis of Andray or Telinga. In 1309 Allah ud Deen, the Delhi sovereign, despatched an army against it by the route of Bengal, without success; but it was subsequently taken from the Hindoos by Aligh Khan. It, however, again reverted to that ancient people, and in 1421 its raja was slain in battle, and the place captured by Khan Azim Khan, the general of Ahmed Shah Bhamenee, sultan of the Deccan. By different authors the name is variously written Woragulla, Warankul, Wurrungal, Warangol, and Arenkil. At present the city, or rather its remains, and the district attached, belong to the Nizam.—(*Scott, Ferishta, Wilks, &c.*)

WARGONG.—A village in the province of Aurungabad, division of Jooneer, twenty-two miles N.W. from Poona. It stands on the high road from Poona to Bombay, and is one of the stations at which a bungalow is kept up by government for the use of travellers, a most important accommodation in a country where

there are not any inns.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

WARIOR.—The site of an extensive cavalry cantonment, of late years unoccupied, about two miles west of Trichinopoly in the Carnatic, and connected with it by a road or elevated causeway across the intervening rice fields.

WAROOT.—A large and well-built village in the province of Bejapoor, and principality of Satara, five miles N.E. from the town of Satara. The Krishna here is a dark-coloured mountain-stream about a foot deep in the beginning of May, previous to the commencement of the wet monsoon.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

WARREE (*or Sawunt warree*).—A small principality in the province of Bejapoor, the capital of which stands in lat. 15° 56′ N., lon. 74′ E., twenty-nine miles north from Goa.

The state generally known by the name of Sawuntwarree, is a tract of country situated principally between the sea and the great Western Ghaut mountains, about forty miles in length, extending from the Portuguese settlement of Goa on the south, to the British possessions in Malwan on the north, and inland about twenty-five miles from the mountains. The general aspect of the surface is rocky and barren, and except in those parts where with much labour and perseverance, it has been cleared for cultivation, it is close, difficult of access, and covered with jungle. The country in the vicinity of the sea-coast is a succession of rocky heights, on which frequently for many miles not a trace of vegetation is to be seen, and the few spots among them that have been brought under tillage yield only the poorer sort of grain. The population of this territory is scanty, but its defensive strength considerable, every peasant being liable at all seasons to be called for his services. The maritime portion has been so long noted for piracy, that in old maps the tract is always designated as the "pirate coast."

This petty state dates its commencement about 1648, during the sway of Sevajee, at which period the Sawunts of Warree, were deshmookhs and jaghiredars of the adjoining Portuguese district of Goa. Luckin Sawunt, who afterwards raised himself into notice, was then a naik in the service of the Maharatta soubahdar; but having joined the Moguls, and signalized himself, he was rewarded by being made chief of the five prants, which title the rajas of Warree still bear. After Sambajee, the son and successor of Sevajee, was taken prisoner, the Mogul forces left the country, and Luckin Sawunt established himself at Warree, where he was succeeded by his son Kemp Sawunt, who extended his authority over the whole of the Coodal prant, with the exception of Soonderdroog. The deep-rooted enmity between the Colapoor and Warree families traces back its origin to the above era, and has subsisted with various alternations of success ever since, to the great detriment of their country and its inhabitants.

With the British government this petty state first came into contact about the beginning of the 19th century. In 1809, when Positra, in the Gujerat Peninsula, was taken possession of, it was the last piratical station between the gulf of Cutch and Cape Comorin, the intervening space of sea-coast excepted, adjoining to Goa, and belonging to Kemp Sawunt, chieftain of Warree. Against this marine depredator, circumstances had never permitted the Bombay government to proceed further, than by keeping up an annual blockade of his ports, at a considerable expense, which, together with the perturbed condition of the interior, secured an immunity, not very creditable to British commerce, along the coast of the Concan. In 1812, with a view to the further extirpation of piracy, treaties were entered into with the rajas of Colapoor and the Bhonsla or chief of Warree, when the fort and island of Soonderdroog (or Malwan), with the three dependent forts of Puddumghur

Rajcote, and Sirjicote, were ceded by the first, and the fort of Vingorla by the ranny of Sawunt Warree. These cessions were principally considered of importance, as contributing to the suppression of piracy on the west coast of India, and affording complete protection to the commerce of Bombay, without having recourse to the inconvenient and expensive measure of annually stationing a blockading squadron for that purpose. They had also the additional advantage of coercing the adjacent native powers, and preventing the intrusion of foreign enemies.

In 1814, the divisions of Maloondy and Varnda were taken possession of by the British troops, having been ceded by the raja of Colapoor, yet the ranny of Sawunt Warree, Durgabhye Bhonsla, continued to make collections, and persevered with most extraordinary obstinacy until compelled to desist by main force. After this she endeavoured to cut off all intercourse between Malwan and Goa, through the Warree territories, and to levy duties on the Carhee Creek; indeed the distracted state of her government was such, that she possessed little or no control over the troops and officers who received her pay.

In 1815, the long pending disputes between the two rival princesses of Sawunt Warree, the rannies Durgabhye and Dudeebhye, and their partisans, broke out into hostilities, and both parties used every artifice to procure the support of the British government, but every encouragement was withheld. These commotions also established a very considerable migration of the inhabitants, both to the British and Portuguese territories, and consequences soon ensued detrimental to the tranquillity of both countries, as parties of armed men crossed the boundaries, both in persuit of each other, and for the purpose of predatory aggression. The ranny Durgabhye, who had ostensible possession of the throne, disavowed all these acts, and acknowledged her inability to punish them, and application to the Peshwa, her feudal superior, was found to be equally unavailing.

Under these tantalizing circumstances no remedy appeared, except the endeavouring by remonstrance at Warree, to remove each ground of complaint as it occurred. In reality it did not appear that any measure short of the actual subjugation of Warree could prevent the recurrence of these offences, and such a conquest would only lead to similar aggressions from our new neighbours, the half obedient dependents of the greater Maharatta chieftians, contiguous to that city. The reduction of Warree and its numerous fortresses, would have required two battalions of native infantry and five hundred Europeans, with a proportionate artillery; Rairee, at least, could not be attempted with less, and supposing all these captured, the enemy might retire to the hill jungles, and from thence harass the plains, until all the forts among the ghaut mountains, and practicable roads cut through the jungles. Supporting one party against the other, would be nearly as expensive and inconvenient as taking the country, and involve the British government in all the disputes of the restless factions at Sawunt Warree.

The above train of reasoning induced the British government to tolerate the aggressions of Sawunt Warree, which were continued throughout the whole of 1817, in which year also that pugnacious state commenced hostilities against the Portuguese. These disturbances also continued throughout the greater part of 1818, until at length complaint and remonstrance being found unavailing, a British detachment under General Sir William Keir was marched against Warree, the capital, which along with the fortresses of Newtee and Rairee, were compelled to surrender. —(*Public MS. Documents, Elphinstone, Dunlop, &c.*)

Warrior.—A town in the Carnatic, fifty-six miles S.S.W. from

Pondicherry; lat. 11° 19′ N., lon. 79° 23′ E.

WARRUNAH.—A town in the province of Berar, fifty-two miles N.N.E. from Nandore; lat. 19° 37′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E.

WARYE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, and division of Jutwar, twelve miles S.W. from Rahdunpoor; lat. 23° 33′ N., lon. 71° 22′ E. In 1809 this was an open town, protected by a ditch almost filled up with thorns and rubbish; in 1820 it was almost a heap of ruins. In 1809 it possessed 1,000 horse and 4,000 foot; in 1820, nine horse and 755 foot. In 1820 the chief people of Warye were Baloochies of the Jhut tribe, who used to confederate with the Khoza banditti.—(*Macmurdo, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

WASSOTAH.—A strong hill fortress in the province of Bejapoor, situated among the Western Ghauts, thirty miles S.S.W. from Satara. It stands at the end of a narrow valley, and is in figure a triangle, the base to the east, the other two sides descend into the Concan, a perpendicular sheet of rock from 2,000 to 3,000 feet high. Old Wassotah is a rock higher than new Wassotah, connected at its base with the latter, its summit being distant about 1,000 yards, commanding and enfilading the eastern face of new Wassotah, but over a chasm of 1,500 feet in depth. The adjacent scenery is of the grandest description. Most of the hills that here extend west into the Concan present nearly perpendicular faces of rock, from 500 to 2,000 feet high, while the view to the east presents a striking contrast to the aspect of the west. Mountains appear to rise on mountains; the narrow valleys and slopes are covered with forest trees and thick underwood, through which rivulets are perceptible, while the summits occasionally present patches of flowering shrubs. These forests abound with the pepper-vine, the Malacca-cane (of which walking-sticks are made); several trees of bastard nutmeg, with fruit on them, are seen, besides numerous varieties of flowering shrubs and aromatic plants.

Wassotah was besieged during the war of 1818, when the Satara raja joined Mr. Elphinstone in the camp on the 4th of April; but the Peshwa's commandant, Bhasker Punt, still refusing to surrender, the batteries were opened at the risk of sacrificing the families of the Satara raja, as also two British officers confined in the fort. The mortar-battery being erected on old Wassotah, the descent of every shell could be observed, and appeared to have little effect; yet on the ensuing morning the commandant and garrison unexpectedly tendered their submission, and gave up a fortress, which from its immense natural strength might otherwise have been a work of much time and difficulty. By this event the wives of the Satara princes were restored to their husbands, along with the family jewels to the value of three lacks of rupees. Fortunately only two female servants were wounded by the explosion of the shells.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

WASTARA.—A village in the Mysore province, sixty-five miles N.E. from Mangalore; lat. 13° 14′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E. There is an old fort here said to have been constructed during the flourishing period of the Bednore government.—(*Colonel Lambton, &c.*)

WAUGUR.—A large division of the Gujerat province, of which it occupies the north-eastern corner, being bounded on the north by Ajmeer, and on the east by Malwa. The principal towns are Doongurpoor, Banswara, and Gullicote, and a considerable proportion of the inhabitants of the Bheel tribes. The Mahy is the principal river, and the Guicowar the feudal superior.

WAUJPOOR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, forty-five miles E. by N. from Surat; lat. 21° 24′ N., lon. 73° 47′ E.

WAUSSIM.—A division of the

Berar province, situated above the ghauts, and described by Abul Fazel, in 1582, under the name of Bassum. The principal river is the Payn Gunga, which flows through an extensive valley, and afterwards falls into the Wurda. The town of Waussim stands in lat. 20°10′ N., lon. 77° 22′ E.; 83 miles E.N.E. from Jalna.

Wawul.—A town in the province of Gujerat, a few miles S.E. from Rahdunpoor. It stands on the banks of the Sereswati, a small stream of salt water, which during the rains overflows its banks, but at other seasons is every where fordable.

Weerawow.—A town in the province of Mooltan, division of Chaulchkaun, subdivision of Parkur, of which last it is the second largest.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Wellasey.—One of the ancient Candian provinces in the island of Ceylon, situated to the east of the capital. Although its surface is not very low, its climate, like that of the plains, is subject to long drought and periodical sickness. The most unhealthy months are July, August, and September, when the wind is generally from the north-west, and the country parched for the want of rain. In A.D. 1819, in three months, 205 European troops, stationed at this division, died out of 250, including five officers, and only two of the whole escaped having the sickness. Compared with the neighbouring districts, the surface of Wellasey is almost level, and presents a mixture of clear open tracts and jungle.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Wellesley Province.—A tract of territory possessed by the British on the main-land of the Malay principality, and division of Queda, directly opposite to Penang. It extends from the south bank of the Qualla Muda, to the north bank of the Krian river, lat. 5° 20′ N., a space of thirty-five miles, but its breadth inland does not exceed four miles. In 1824 it contained 14,000 inhabitants, and was expected to produce 48,000 bags of rice. The principal British settlement is at Bukkah, a stream five miles south from the Qualla Muda, and accessible at springs to very small prows. The British superintendent resides at Bukkah.

Werrear.—A district in the province of Gujerat, extending along the northern frontier. The country between Rahdunpoor and Patree, on the north and south, and from Beecharjer to the banks of the Runn, is called Wudyar, or Wurryar, for which name the inhabitants say it is indebted to the excellent quality of its grass, it being resorted to by immense herds of cattle sent to pasture on the banks of the Runn. Wadyar, or Wandyar in the Gujerattee language signifies a herdsman, by which class the banks of the Runn were formerly inhabited.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Wetter Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, lying off the north coast of Timor, about the eighth degree of south latitude, the interior of which has never been explored. In length it may be estimated at sixty-five miles, by twenty, the average breadth.

Weyre.—A town in the province of Agra, principality of Bhurtpoor, situated on the high road from Jeypoor to Agra, fifty miles west from the latter city; lat. 27° 2′ N., lon. 77° 2′ E. The wall here is of earth, well flanked by some circular bastions, with a wide but shallow ditch, filled up in several places, and without a glacis. There are loop-holes for musketry in the parapets of the bastion, but in 1824 there were not any cannon. Within the gateway is a narrow bazar, with its usual accompaniments of mud huts, heaps of grocery, fat banyans, scolding women, Brahminy bulls, and much uncleanness. Farther on is a large handsome Hindoo house of stone, coated with marble chunam, and a flower garden watered by stone channels, conducted from a large tank, with

several fountains round it. At the further end of the garden is a moat surrounding an old stone-built castle, with round towers, and high ramparts of stone. Two high arches covered with gods and goddesses, and a small college of religious mendicants, are the remaining curiosities of Weyre. There are many Mahomedans here who seem to agree perfectly well with their Jaut masters.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

WHARTOO *(or Wartoo)*.—A high mountain in Northern Hindostan, seven miles S.E. from Koteghur; lat. 31° 15′ N., lon. 77° 29′ E. The extreme height of the peak is about 10,673 feet above the level of the sea, yet it is wooded to the summit, composed of quartz and gneiss. There are here two small watch-houses built of unhewn stones, in which the Gorkhas formerly kept a small party of infantry. The chief objection to Whartoo, as a military post, is the want of water. It was retained by the British government at the peace of 1815.—(*Hodgson, Herbert, Fraser, &c.*)

WHYE.—A Hindoo place of pilgrimage in the province of Bejapoor, near to the sources of the Krishna, thirty-five miles south from Poona; lat. 18° N., lon. 74° 5′ E.

WOJAREE.—A village in the province of Ajmeer, situated on the Beerach, four miles from Fullait. In 1820, it belonged to the rana of Odeypoor, and contained about 150 houses.

WOMBINELLORE.—A town in the province of Salem, 106 miles S.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 11° 40′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E.

WOONY.—A town in the province of Berar, situated a little above the sungam, or confluence of the Wurda and Payn Gunga rivers; lat. 20° 10′ N., lon. 78° 59′ E.

WONE.—A town, or rather the ruins of one, in the province of Candeish, as in 1818 it had not more than seventy tolerable houses remaining. It still however contains eight large and four small pagodas, of a pyramidical form, with a superfluity of carving and decorations, and enclosing colossal statues. These temples are built of hewn granite, without cement, and clamped with iron every three or four inches. Some of the blocks supporting the the upper part of the doorways and entablatures are fourteen feet long, and thick in proportion. The inscriptions appear to be of Jain origin, at least not from a Brahminical source. —(*Dangerfield, Erskine, &c.*)

WOORATLA.—A town in the Northern Circars, forty-one miles S.W. from Vizagapatam; lat. 17° 33′ N., lon. 82° 48′ E.

WOW.—A fortified town in the province of Gujerat, division of Neyer, about ten miles S.W. from Theraud; lat. 24° 11′ N., lon. 71° 23′ E. In 1820, the Nadola Chohan Rajpoots occupied that portion of the Theraudri next the Runn, from Sooneegaum to the towns of Jampi and Dookra, on the Loony river, which is the Ban of Arrowsmith's map. Their chief was Zalim Singh Chohan, the rana of Wow, whose kindred or brotherhood were numerous, and petty chiefs of fortified villages mostly depopulated. At the above date the revenues of this extensive tract were only estimated at 24,250 rupees per annum, of which the rana received little more than half; but immediately on its being taken under British protection, seventeen towns were immediately repeopled. In 1820, owing to the incessant ravages it had sustained, the houses in Wow were reduced from 5,000 in 1809, to 500, and its military force from 600 horse and 5,000 foot to 32 horse and 2,042 foot. All the neighbouring towns were in a condition equally deplorable.—(*Miles, &c.*)

WOWAMIA.—A small fishing town in the Gujerat peninsula, about six miles distant from where the fortress of Mallia stood; lat. 22° 50′ N., lon. 70° 40′ E. This place stands on the

margin of the Runn, and there is a ferry established for the transport of passengers to the Cutch shore.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Wrissa.—A town in the province of Mooltan, principality of Sinde, situated on the west bank of the Indus, seventeen miles N.N.E. from Tatta; lat. 24° 55′ N., lon. 68° 25′ E.

Wuckutghur.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Budnawur, from which town it is distant about seven miles south; lat. 22° 57′ N., lon. 75° 12′ E.

Wudwan.—A considerable town and fort in the province of Gujerat, tributary to the Guicowar; lat. 22° 42′ N., lon. 71° 47′ E. Ghee, hemp, and leather are brought to this place from Puttunwara in waggons, and carried hence to Bhownuggur, on the gulf of Cambay, from whence they are exported by sea.—(*Macmurdo, Walker, &c.*)

Wullubghur.—A hill-fort in the province of Bejapoor, thirty-seven miles S. by W. from Merritch; lat. 16° 20′ N., lon. 74° 38′ E. This place was long held under the Peshwa by Purseram Bhow, and when he was defeated and slain, was seized by the Colapoor Raja, in whose possession it remained until 1804, when, by the interposition of the British government, it was restored to the Peshwa, and was transferred by him to one of his feudatories.—(*MSS., &c.*)

Wurda River (*varada, granting prayers*).—A river of the province of Gundwana, which rises in the pergunnah of Mooltye, and flowing south joins the Wyne Gunga, at Seony, below Chanda. To the south of Hinghunghaut this river is about the size of the Kankaun, opposite to Nagpoor. It has many fine pools in the hottest weather, but is generally fordable at all seasons, excepting the very height of the rains. The streams and rivulets that have their source in the hilly tract west of Nagpoor, all flow north or south of the Wurda, which is navigable during the rains as high as Rattegong, above which point, except while the high floods prevail, the navigation is not practicable owing to a fall in the river at Natchengong. The Wunna river, which passes the large trading town of Hinghunghaut and falls into the Wurda, is navigable for boats some distance above the latter place in the height of the rains.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

Wurree.—A village in the province of Ajmeer, pergunnah of Chittoor, which in 1820 belonged to the rana of Odeypoor, and contained about 100 houses.

Wycodoo.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, situated in lat. 8° 43′ N., lon. 77° 42′ E.

Wynaad (*Bynadu*).—A small subdivision of the modern province of Malabar, situated above the Western Ghauts, between the eleventh and twelfth degrees of north latitude, and comprehending an area of about 1,250 square miles. Bynadu, or Wynaad, signifies the open country, but does not seem applicable to this locality, as, although situated on the tops of the mountains, it is in many places overrun with jungle and of difficult access. This territory is also named Nellcala and Wynatil, and produces the best cardamoms in India. Carula Verma, the present raja, (1800,) is sprung from a younger branch of the family and retains considerable power within his own limits. The village of Panamburt Cotta, or Wynaad, is situated in lat. 11°47′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E.; forty miles E. from Tellichery. In 1800 the number of male slaves in this division, above the age of fifteen, amounted to 2,266, and the females to 2,264. The number of males below that age was 1,010, and of females 1,050. The total number of free inhabitants at that date amounted to 8,070 persons.

Wyne Gunga District (*Vana Ganga*).—A district in the province of Gundwana, belonging to the Nagpoor Raja, named from the Wyne

Gunga River, by which it is intersected.

The area of this district cannot yet be correctly given, it never having been surveyed; a large portion particularly, near the hills, is occupied by zemindars. In the government part the low country to the east of the river is throughout cultivated, with the exception of what is intentionally kept in pasturage. In some tracts to the west there are extensive plains still waste, owing to the extortions practised towards the conclusion of Ragojee's reign. This district is divided into thirteen pergunnahs.

It would appear from ancient records, traces of towns, forts, villages and tanks, discovered in the jungles, that this country was once much more populous than at present. At what period and from what cause it fell into the impoverished condition in which it was found by the Mahrattas cannot now be ascertained; but the fact of its being then partitioned among a number of savage Gond zemindars, hostile to each other, and rebellious towards their superiors of Mundela, Deoghur and Chanda, may partly account for its then state of desolation. Under the Bhoonsla domination, however, it greatly improved and its population increased, the turbulent Gond zemindars being expelled from the plains, to make room for more industrious subjects and a more pacific administration. The collections under the British system in 1818-19, amounted to 7,10,435 rupees; in 1824, to 7,56,333 rupees; the number of inhabited villages to 2,111; and the total population to 690,770 persons.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

WYNE GUNGA RIVER (*Vana Ganga, the arrow Ganges*).—A river of Gundwana, and one of the largest in the Nagpoor dominions. It rises in the district of Seonee Chuparah, where its source is 1,850 feet above the level of the sea, and passing through the town of Chuparah, emerges from the hills at Tambooda, about twenty miles north from Rampyle. Flowing thence with a southerly course by Bundara, Ambora and Pawnee, and through the district of Chanda, it enters the Godavery at Kalishwar, near Chinoor. In many parts of its course the channel of this river is above half a mile wide, but when it is confined by the hills it does not exceed 400 or 500 yards. It is fordable in most places during the dry season, and it does not receive any stream of magnitude from the eastern hills, but several from the western, more especially from the Mahadeo hills. The Kanhaun, which flows in the rear of the British cantonments at Kampti, is there about 500 yards wide, and it subsequently joins the Wyne Gunga two miles north of Ambora.

This river serves for the purpose of transporting timber, brought to it in considerable quantities through the channels of its principal tributaries from the hills, as well as rice and other raw articles of produce.—The Kanhaun, Pech and Colar are used for the same purpose, and by means of them and the Wyne Gunga the city and cantonments of Nagpoor are supplied with most of the timber required for building. The latter river in the lower parts of its course is said to be navigable during the rains for boats of 600 maunds burthen.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

WYRAGHUR.—A town in the province of Gundwana, seventy-four miles N.E. from the city of Nagpoor; lat. 20° 19′ N., lon. 80° 56′ E. The diamond mines here were formerly noted for their value, but they have long ceased to yield adequate returns. The diamonds were found in a yellowish earth, which forms small hills in the vicinity of Wyraghur. The spots may still be distinguished where these gems were dug up.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

X.

XULLA ISLES.—Four islands in the Eastern seas, situated to the south-

east of the Molucca passage. The one named Xulla Bessey is the most considerable, being eleven leagues in length, in good cultivation and well-inhabited. The Dutch fort or factory is near a village, adjacent to the south-east point, where ships may procure refreshments. In A.D. 1350, according to the annals of Ternate, the people of that island conquered the Xulla Isles, and in modern times they are said to be occasionally invaded by the Papuas, although the distance is almost 300 miles.—(*Bougainville, Thorn, &c.*)

Y.

YANDABOO.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, forty-five miles W.S.W. from the city of Ava. On the arrival of Sir Archibald Campbell's army at this place the treaty of peace was at last ratified by the Burmese monarch, on the twenty-sixth of February 1826, the first instalment (twenty-five lacks of rupees) paid down, and the prisoners liberated, which being accomplished, the British army immediately retrograded towards Rangoon. The total number of the British army at Yandaboo did not quite reach 4,500 men; and there was only one native regiment posted at Meaday, to protect the rear, and keep open the communication with the sea.—(*Trant, &c.*)

YAYNANGHEOUM.—A town in the Burmese dominions, situated on the left bank of the Irawady; lat. 20° 28′ N., lon. 94° 35′ E. Five miles east of this place are the celebrated petroleum wells, which supply the whole Burmese empire, and many parts of Ultra-Gangetic India, with this useful production.

The town is chiefly inhabited by pot-makers, who carry on an extensive manufacture of earthenware. There are here a great many oil-pits or wells, from thirty-seven to fifty-three fathoms deep, scattered over an area of sixteen square miles, and are said to yield about 150 gallons daily. The oil is drawn up with an iron pot fastened to a rope, passed over a wooden axis, revolving on a bar supported by two upright posts. When the pot is filled, two men take the rope and run down a declivity; the pot is afterwards emptied into a cistern, and the water drawn off by a hole at the bottom. When a well is exhausted, they restore the spring by cutting deeper into the rock, which is extremely hard. The Birman government farms out the ground that contains the oil, and it becomes subject to adventurers, who dig the wells at their own hazard. The commodity is sold very cheap on the spot, the principal expense being the charges of transportation, and the cost of the earthen pots to hold it. In 1827 the surrounding country was found barren, uninteresting, and almost destitute of vegetation; and not only fossil wood was found, but also fossil shells and bones. The latter consisted of those of the rhinoceros, elephant, alligator, tortoise, &c., and were brought away in large quantities by the British embassy to be sent to Europe.—(*Symes, Crawfurd, Trant, &c.*)

YE.—This province, or rather district, is of small extent, and usually included in that of Tavoy. It is bounded on the north by the Kyaup Kyajee river; on the south it is separated from Tavoy by the Henza; on the east it is bounded by the Siamese mountains; and on the west by the sea.

The face of the country presents a dense jungle, broken at wide intervals by rivers and rice plains, the last of small extent. Its agriculture and productions entirely resemble those of Tavoy. The Ye river was explored to about thirty miles above the town, but no teak was discovered. In 1825 it contained very few inhabitants, as besides Burmese cruelty it had been infested by Siamese marauding parties, to procure slaves. The district, in consequence, when acquired by the British, was almost in

a state of nature, and yielded no revenue.

YE.—The town of Ye, as may be inferred from the above description of the province, is a very insignificant place, and in 1825 did not contain more than 150 houses; yet it is the only aggregation of dwellings in the province deserving the name of a town. The stockade of Ye stands on a hill about 100 feet above the river, which washes its southern base; but was captured without resistance in 1824, and then left to shift for itself, exposed to the ravages of Siamese marauders, our nominal allies. Timber is abundant, and the inhabitants were formerly reckoned good carpenters, but they have nearly all disappeared.—(*Low, Fullerton, &c.*)

YEELAUDOOR.—A large village in the Mysore province, situated on the bank of a fine stream, thirty-eight miles S.E. from the city of Mysore. This place is surrounded by plantations of betel-leaf, and contains two Hindoo temples, of considerable size and antiquity, much decorated with sculpture.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

YELLACUMBUM.—A neat, well-built village in the Mysore province, about eleven miles N. by E. from Bangalore, with which it communicates by an excellent road.

YELLANEER PASS.—A pass among the Western Ghauts, which leads down from Mercara, the capital of the Coorg country, to Mangalore on the sea-coast. It commences about nine miles north-westerly from Mercara, and is a steep descent, with little variation, to the bottom, a distance of about three miles. It is in general good, and scarcely at all affected by the rains. The substance of the mountain being a mixture of clay and loam, hardens when exposed to the air. A very little repairing would render the ghaut practicable for any thing but guns and carriages.—(*Col. Lambton, &c.*)

YELLAPARA.—A small town above the Western Ghaut mountains, belonging to the modern province of Canara, division of Soonda, sixty miles S.E. from the city of Goa; lat. 15° 2′ N., lon. 74° 50′ E.

YENNA.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Jowra, which in 1820 belonged to Ghuffoor Khan, and contained about 200 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

YERTNAGOODUM.—A town in the Northern Circars, fifteen miles west from Rajamundry; lat. 16° 58′ N., lon. 81° 39′ E. The forests on the banks of the Godavery abound with timber fit for the purposes of ship-building, being of a superior size and quality. In 1814 the firm of Wm. Palmer and Co., from their own observation and from facts detailed by the inhabitants of the Ramghur and Paloonshah pergunnahs, were of opinion that a navigation of 400 miles in length might be opened, during four months of the year, on this river and the Wurda, which would greatly facilitate the commercial intercourse between the inland provinces of the Deccan and the bay of Bengal.—(*Rennell, J. Grant, Blunt, H. Russell, &c.*)

YETCOOPAUK.—A small town in the Northern Circars, district of Vizagatam, forty-seven miles travelling distance from the town of Vizagapatam. This place stands in the gorge of a narrow opening in the mountains, where there is also a temple built on the apex of a low hill.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

YLIGAN.—A small Spanish redoubt and garrison, situated on a bay of the same name, on the north coast of Magindanao isle.

YOWL ISLES.—A cluster of very small islands in the Eastern seas, lying off the north coast of Wageeoo island, about the 131st degree of east longitude, and surrounded by coral reefs.

YUGYACARTA *(in Java)*.—See JOCOCARTA.

YUNNAN.—A province of China, situated at the S.W. corner, and intersected by the twenty-fifth degree of N. latitude. Very little is known re-

specting the interior of this province, and that through the medium mostly of the Jesuits and Roman Catholic missionaries; but at present it deserves notice, as being within 200 miles of the eastern extremity of Assam, now virtually subject to the British government.

The country which forms the western portion of Yunnan is described by the Chinese as mountainous, wild, thinly-peopled, and very unhealthy. According to Col. Symes it is named Mancheegee by the Burmese; and Mangi is the name given by Marco Polo to the southern part of China; the northern he calls Cathay. It contains the sources of many rivers. The great river Loo-keang forms the boundary of the Chinese empire in this quarter, from lat. 27° to 26° N., where it enters the Yunnan province, and issuing from it again about lat 24° N., proceeds nearly due south, serving, during a considerable part of its course, as the boundary line of Ava and Siam; subsequently it discharges its waters into the sea below Martaban, after performing a course of more than 660 miles.

There is a place named Tsau-ta by Du Halde (lat. 25° N., lon. 98° 10′ E.) with the title of foo or city of the first order, but in a modern Chinese map it is mentioned merely as a frontier town or foo-sze, and there is no chief city to the westward of Yung Chang Foo (lat. 25° N., lon. 99° 40′ E.) on the outskirts of the Chinese empire. Shunning is in lat. 24° 40′ N., lon. 100° 20′ E. The modern Chinese map mentions Tsau-ta or Sauta as one of these military stations and not as a chief town, and Du Halde says "that last town which confines on the kingdom of Ava is properly a fortified city to defend that part of the frontier."

The Pinlang Keang river of the Chinese, flowing into the Burmese territory, immediately below Tsau-ta, is called in our maps Pan-mo-keang, and represented as uniting with the Irawady at Bhanmo or Panmo, while the Lung Chuen Keang (lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 98° 52′ E.) a little below to the southward, is named the Shu-eli Myeet, and also flows into the Irawady. Were this point established, then the Lung Chuen Keang would also be the real Bhanmo, or Pan-mo Keang. Below the Lung Chuen towards Ava, we find immediately on the border Meng-maou (lat. 23° 50′ N., lon. 97° 55′ E.), or as it is pronounced Mengmo, which is very likely intended for Bhanmo or Panmo, called Bamoo by Col. Symes.

A stream named in a manuscript Chinese map the Man-loo-ho, whose source is about lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 99° 40′ E. seems to be the commencement of the great river of Siam (the Menam) which reaches the sea at Bankok. The Kew-Lung Keang, or river of the nine dragons, after collecting a number of tributary streams in the Yunnan province, traverses an immense expanse, and finally empties itself into the sea at the southern extremity of Cambodia, is not excelled by the Yang-tsze itself in length of course, and may be classed among the principal rivers of our globe.

The original natives of Yunnan are more or less independent, and where there is a divided authority, each tribe is ruled by its own chief, which is more particularly the case with the Meau-tsze or Lolos. According to a Roman Catholic priest, Yunnan is at present ruled by a Chinese viceroy, but has not been very long conquered, especially the remote parts, by that nation, and after an obstinate resistance. Disturbances have arisen during the reigning dynasty, but have been forcibly subdued. The city of Poo-eul, the the Poo-urh-foo of the maps (lat. 23° 10′ N., lon. 101° 20′ E.) is four lis in circumference. Its population is not known, being partly composed of natives. The mountain named Pou-eul is famed for a species of tea, which is carried to Pekin, and presented to the emperor in balls or in cakes, which are composed of the extract. The district of Yung Chang Foo con-

tains a city of the second order, one of the third, and some small districts which are inhabited by subdued natives, but many still remain independent. The province is known to be rich in metals, from which the government draws much profit.—(*J. F. Davis, &c.*)

YUNSHAN.—An extensive inland region of India beyond the Ganges, situated about the twentieth degree of north latitude, but respecting the interior of which scarcely anything is known. By the Burmese it is comprehended in the list of their provinces, and its inhabitants are probably a branch of the great Shan nation. The country appears to be well watered, and is probably fertile, being intersected by several rivers flowing from the province of Yunnan in China.—See SHAN COUNTRY.

YUTHIA *(or Siam).*—A town in the kingdom of Siam, of which it was the former capital; lat. 14° 5′ N., lon. 100° 25′ E. This place stands on an island formed by the Menam or Siam river, intersected by several canals, and has several other islands adjacent. Although of great extent, the population has been very scanty ever since the seat of government was removed to Bankok. The palace of the king covers a great space of ground, and is surrounded by high walls, including several temples, but the whole now in ruins. There are still here many casts of statues and cannon, the latter of a prodigious calibre, which indicate a greater perfection in the arts than now exists. In 1767 this place was captured after a long blockade by the Burmese, who pillaged the city, destroyed the temples, tortured and massacred the priests, although professing the same religion, and extirpated the royal family. By the Burmese this town is frequently named Dwarawuddy, but by the natives it is named See-y-thaa; but most of the Siamese towns are distinguished by two appellations, one in the vulgar tongue and the other in the Pali.—(*Elmore, Turpin, Symes, &c.*)

Z.

ZABETA KHAN'S CANAL *(or the Doab Canal).*—A canal in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, known by the above name, and from an attempt made by Zabeta Khan to restore it, but which failed from the interruption given to the work by the Seiks. The original excavator is not known, nor even the exact date, but it is supposed to have been commenced during the reign of Mahomed Shah, a short time previous to Nadir Shah's invasion, but owing to the troubles that ensued was neglected. Regarding its subsequent repairs there are various traditions among the natives, but it appears its restoration was attempted by Nijib ud Dowlah, the nabob of Saharunpoor, or his son Zabeta Khan, probably the last, who during the first year of his reign brought the water to Ghousghur, then his capital.

This canal appears at one time, and under different names, to have run through the whole western half of the upper doab of the Ganges and Jumna, from the base of the hills to the city of Delhi; and before it fell into decay must have fertilized in its windings an extent of country not much short of 200 miles. Proofs of the former fertility of this tract may still be traced amidst its present state of impoverishment. Extensive groves of mango trees are evidences that population once existed there, and even where no vestiges of human industry now remain, the names of villages are recorded in the public accounts as having once stood on it. It commenced at Fyzabad, a small village near the banks of the Jumna, where the water was thrown into the canal by a dam, and must have been a source of great revenue, as the zemindars in its neighbourhood were taxed according to the quantity of water they required. Where irrigation was called for, a bund or embankment was thrown across it, and in a few hours the fields were inundated. According to tradition, four annas per bega, modified by peculiar

circumstances, were paid to government for a supply of water, and in particular spots the payment was received in kind. But besides this regular and rational tax, there were an endless variety of taxes exacted from cattle for permission to drink, washermen for permission to wash, flax-dressers for permission to steep their hemp and flax, &c. &c. which the British on its restoration intend wholly to abolish. In 1823, the total expence likely to be incurred by its restoration was estimated at 2,03,633 rupees.

In the upper part of its course the banks where this canal formerly run, are covered with sissoo trees, which in some places form forests of great extent, and in others are scattered over the country in great abundance. At present they are seldom allowed to attain their full size, but with proper looking after might become valuable timber.—(*Capt. Tod, Sir E. Colebrooke, Capt. Tickell, &c.*)

ZAFFERABAD.—A populous town in the province of Allahabad, four miles north from Juanpoor; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 83° 38′ E.

ZEBU ISLE.—One of the Philippines, situated about the 123d and 124th degrees of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at 108 miles, by twenty-four the average breadth.

Magellan arrived at this island in A.D. 1521, and was received by the inhabitants with such kindness, that their king, Hamabar, his whole family, with the chief of Dimasara (another island), and many of his subjects, were baptized. The chief of Mactan, a small island lying off the town of Zebu, alone resisted the Spaniards, and defied Magellan, who unfortunately accepted the challenge. He selected for the enterprize fifty Spaniards, who attacked the Indians in morasses, the water up to their breasts, and approached so near, that Magellan was wounded by an arrow, and died in the field of battle with six others, the rest saving themselves by flight. On his death the survivors chose for their commander Juan Serrano, but he was soon after decoyed into a snare by the natives of Zebu, and, with twenty-four other Spaniards, massacred. His successor, Juan Carvallo, burned one of the vessels, and sailed from Zebu, with the Trinidad and Victoria, in search of the Moluccas.—(*Zuniga, &c.*)

ZEDAYO.—A town on the north coast of the island of Java, 509 miles east from Batavia; lat. 6° 58′ N., lon. 112° 35′ E. This place is situated at the entrance of the harbour of Gressie, and is a port of considerable importance. In 1814, the depati, or native under the British government, was a man of very superior talents and intelligence to the generality of his countrymen. In the eastern quarter of Java these petty chiefs live with some splendour, and are remarkably hospitable to strangers.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

ZINCHIN.—A Tartar station in Tibet, 16,136 feet above the level of the sea. At this enormous elevation, in 1821, horses were seen feeding and galloping about; large flocks of small birds, kites and eagles soaring in the air, and locusts jumping among the bushes. The sky was remarkably black, and the heavenly bodies shone brilliantly. With a transit instrument of thirty inches, and a power of thirty, stars of the fifth magnitude could be distinctly seen in broad day. On the 26th July, the thermometer attained 60° Fahrenheit in the shade; before sunrise it was 30° Fahrenheit. Plenty of fuel, (metoh, bearing a beautiful yellow flower, and without prickles,) good water, and a serene sky were found.—(*Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

ZONCHENG.—A station in Tibet, 14,700 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 36′ N. According to theory, this spot should be buried in everlasting snow; but, when visited by Messrs. Gerards, in July 1821, the reality was very different. The glen was covered by Tartaric furze, and the banks of the river with prickly bushes. The surrounding land was covered with verdure, flocks of sheep

were browzing, deer leaping, while the thermometer reached 68°.—(*Gerards, &c.*)

Zyghur *(or Jaighur)*.—A seaport town in the province of Bejapoor, district of Concan, 123 miles S. by E. from Bombay; lat. 17° 14′ N., lon. 73° 23′ E. The two points that form the entrance to the bay of Zyghur are about five miles distant, and it is about two miles and a half deep. The entrance of the river is about three quarters of a mile broad, with about three fathoms and a half water. The channel is navigable for a considerable distance inland, and has a large town on the south side, about thirteen miles above the fort. There is not any town at the mouth of the river, but there are straggling villages on both sides. There is plenty of good water in the upper fort, and at some of the adjacent villages, but in the lower fort, and near the usual landing place, it is brackish. The water is commonly quite smooth at the entrance during the south-west monsoon, and inside vessels of a large draught of water may lie completely sheltered at all seasons of the year.—(*Dominicite, &c.*)

GLOSSARY.

N. B. To save the trouble of reference, and to prevent the Glossary from swelling to too great a size, many words are explained in the body of the work (within a parenthesis), as they occur.

AAL *(a plant)*—The *morinda citrifolia*, the roots of which yield a red dye.

ABAD—Abode, residence.

ABKARRY—Taxes or duties on the manufacture and sale of spirituous liquors and intoxicating drugs.

ADAWLET—Justice, equity, a court of justice civil or criminal.

AGAR AGAR—Malay words denoting a species of *fucus saccharinus*.

AGILA *(or eagle-wood)*—A sweet-smelling wood, named also wood of aloes, much used in China.

AGOM *(Sanscrit)*—Magic; the doctrine of the Tantras.

AHEER—A cow, sheep, or goat-herd.

AL—An Arabic particle prefixed to words, equivalent to the English particle *the*; *al koran*, the book or bible of the Mahomedans.

ALLAH TAALA *(Arabic)*—The most high God.

ALTUMGHA *(properly eltugma)*—Lands granted in perpetuity for service or free, as expressed in the deed.

AMBAREE *(a plant)*—The *hibiscus canabinus*.

AMEER *(amir or emir)*—An Arabic word, equivalent to that of nobleman.

AMUK—A Malay word signifying to run-a-muck, or murder indiscriminately.

ANAK *(Malay)*—A confluence of several streams.

ANNA—The sixteenth part of a rupee.

ANTYAJ *(Sanscrit)*—In religion and practice means abominable.

AR or AUR—In the Carnatic a river, as Vanee-aur, the river Vanee.

ARHAT—A Jain appellation, applied to the divine essence. It means venerable. The Jains are sometimes termed Arhatas.

ASURAS—In Hindoo astronomy, inhabitants of the south pole, as opposed to the Suras, those of the north pole; also evil demons, infidels, &c.

ASURA DRUVA—The south pole.

ASTIC *(Sanscrit)*—Orthodox.

ASRAM *(Sanscrit)*—A state in which a person is supposed to become a portion of the divinity.

ARECA—The betel-nut tree, a species of palm. The betel-leaf is betel-piper, which is the same genus as the *piper nigrum* of Linnæus.

ARECA CATECHU—The common betel-nut, the *penang* of the Malays.

ASWAMEDHA—The sacrifice of a horse; a most royal and expensive ceremony, performed by ancient Hindoo rajas, and of such efficacy that it even expiated the crime of slaying a Brahmin.

AUMAUNEE—A technical term which means that the dues of government are to be received in kind from each field reaped, and to be stocked, watched, and sold by the government servants.

AUMILDAR—The holder of an office, an agent or functionary.

AURUNG—The place where goods are manufactured.

AVATARA—Descents of the deity in various shapes, incarnations;

those of Rama and Krishna are the most remarkable.

Awa—A grain of Tibet having the appearance of barley, but which Dr. Wallich considers a species of wheat.

Baboo—A Hindoo title of respect.

Babool Tree—The *mimosa* or *acacia Arabica.*

Bag—A Bengal bag of rice weighs 164 pounds.

Bairaggies—Hindoo devotees, votaries of Vishnu.

Bajury—A grain, the *holcus spicatus.*

Balaghaut—Above the ghauts, in contradistinction to *Payeenghaut*, below the ghauts. The terms refer to the high central table-land in the south of India, and the modern province of the Carnatic.

Bamboo—A Malay word denoting the *arundo bambos.*

Ban *(Siamese)*—A village, place, station.

Banana—The *musa paradisiaca* or plantain.

Bang—An intoxicating drug prepared in India from the flowers and juice of the hemp plant, to which opium is sometimes added.

Bangries—Coarse glass rings worn by females round the wrist.

Banksaul—A Dutch word adopted by the natives of the Malabar coast, to signify a wharf.

Banyan—A Hindoo merchant or shopkeeper.

Banyan Tree *(named also the Bur tree)*—The *ficus Indica.*

Baota—An East-Indian millet, the *panicum frumentaceum.*

Batta—Deficiency, discount, allowance to troops in the field.

Batty—In Malabar means seed land or paddy-field.

Bazar—Daily markets. In Bengal it is not unusual to have them in a haut, where a number of petty venders, besides the established venders, assemble.

Bega—A land measure equal in Bengal to about a third part of an acre, but varying in different provinces. The common ryotty bega in Bengal contains about 1,600 square yards.

Begum—A (Mahomedan) lady, princess, woman of high rank.

Betel-nut Tree—The *areca catechu*, a species of palm.

Betel-leaf—The leaf of a species of pepper (the *piper betel*) which is masticated along with the areca or betel-nut and lime.

Bharat—War, as maha-bharat, the great war.

Bhasha—A dialect.

Bhela Tree—The tree which bears the marking-nut of India; the *semicarpus anacardium.*

Bhojputra—The birch tree.

Bhyaud—A brotherhood.

Bhye—A Hindoo lady of high rank.

Biche-de-Mar *(Insect of the sea; Portuguese)*—It is named also swallo, sea-slug, tripang, and sea-cucumber, and is a marine reptile, very much resembling the garden slug in appearance, but considerably larger. It is a great article of trade from the Eastern islands to China, where it is used to season their soups, being esteemed highly nutritious and invigorating.

Bismillah—A Mahomedan invocation, signifying "in the name of God."

Bindara *(Malay)*—A kind of prime minister and treasurer.

Balachang—A fetid mess composed of small fish, chiefly prawns or shrimps, pounded in a mortar, fermented, mixed with spices and then dried in the sun. It is the *gnapee* of the Burmese.

Bohea—From *Buye*, the name of a chain of hills in China, among the vallies of which the black tea is grown.

Boot—A small vetch, the *cicer arietinum.*

Bowlie—A small reservoir, well, or tank, with steps down to the water; those without steps are named kooah.

Brahmin—The first or sacerdotal caste of the Hindoos.

Brab—A species of palm tree producing the tari or toddy. The *borassus flabelliformis.*

BRAHMINY-GOOSE—The *anas casarca.*

BRAHMOTTAR—Lands granted to Brahmins for their support.

BRINJALS—The *solanum longum.*

BRINJARIES—Itinerant merchants, dealing principally in rice.

BROMELIA ANANAS—The common pine-apple of the East and West Indies.

BUDDICK—The term Buddick is used in conjunction with Dacoit, Cozauk, and Thug, as descriptive of different classes of public robbers.

BUCKSHEE—Paymaster, commander.

BUND—An embankment.

BUNDER—A port or harbour.

BUNGALOW—A commodius dwelling thus named, erected by Europeans in Bengal, and extremely well suited to the climate. It entirely consists of wood, bamboos, mats, and thatch, and may be completed in a short space of time, and at a moderate expense.

BURR TREE—The *ficus indica* or banyan tree.

BURKINDAUZES—Darters of lightning; matchlock-men.

CAFFRE—An unbeliever, Abyssinian, or negro.

CAILAS—In Hindoo mythology, the heaven of Siva.

CALI or CALCI—The tenth incarnation of Vishnu, in the shape of a horse with a human head; still expected.

CALI YUG—A period of 432,000 years, of which 3,101 had expired on the 14th of March A.D. 1 current. The 4925th year of the Cali Yug ended, and the 4926th year began on the 11th April 1824, civil account.

CALPA—The grand period of a general conjunction.

CAMPONG *(Malay)*—An enclosed village, quarters in a bazar.

CANDY—The Bombay candy weighs 560 pounds.

CANNAUT *(Persian)*—A sort of subterranean canal.

CANONGOE *(canun, rule, goe, speak; Persian)*—An officer of government (or register) whose duty it is to keep a register of all circumstances relating to the land revenue, and when called upon, to declare the customs of each district, the nature of the tenures, the quantity of land in cultivation, the nature of the produce, and the amount of rent paid, &c.

CARCOON—A man of business, writer, vakeel, or other agent, or dependent on the government, or on a great chief.

CASH *(Chinese)*—Thin pieces of copper perforated and strung on a cord.

CASTE *(in Sanscrit Kayast'ha)*—A word employed by Europeans to express the subdivisions of the different Hindoo tribes, although properly it has only reference to one, the Kayast'ha or writer division.

CATTY—A Chinese weight of about 1¼ pounds English.

CAUZI—A Mahomedan judge or justice who occasionally officiates as a public notary.

CAWNY—A Madras land measure.

CHACRA—A sort of small discus, or quoit; also a wheel or circle; a cycle of years, a weapon of a circular form placed in the hands of the gods. Rasi Chacra signifies the zodiac.

CHACRABURTY—This title was usually bestowed on the Hindoo emperors of India.

CHANDRA—The common name for the moon.

CHANK—The conch shell or *voluta gravis.*

CHARVACAS *(or Shrawuks)*—A sect of Jains.

CHAKOOR *(or Chuckore)*—The perdix rufa or fire-eater, thus named from its pecking at sparks of fire.

CHICKON—Muslins ornamented with detached flowers or spots.

CHINI—A fine kind of raw sugar.

CHINNA *(the lathyrus aphaca)*—A plant of the pea or vetch kind.

CHITEREES—Sculptured monuments erected in commemoration of distinguished deceased, consisting usually of a small but solid mausoleum.

CHOAR—A robber.

CHOKEYDAR—A watchman.

CHOULTRY—*(Chauvadi)*—A place of accommodation for travellers; the Mahomedans call them Serai, and they are also named Dhurrumsallahs.

CHOW *(Chinese)*—A town or city of the second class.

CHOWK—The principal street or grand market-place of a town.

CHOUT—A fourth part of the clear revenue, a tribute formerly levied on certain states by the Maharattas, as the condition of their abstaining from plundering.

CHOWRY—A whisk to keep off flies. They are either made of the Tibet cows'-tail (the *bos grunniens*,) peacock's-feathers, or ivory-shavings, set in a handle two feet long.

CHUCKRUM—A sum of money equal to $2\frac{1}{4}$ star pagodas.

CHULIAS—In the eastern ports, a name given to Malabar Mahomedans, or Moplays

CHUNAM—Lime. The Madras chunam, made of calcined shells, is considered the best in India.

CHUCKLAH—See CIRCAR.

CHUNNA—The *cicer arientinum*, a species of grain.

CHUR—A sand-bank.

CIRCAR—In Hindostan, a certain number of villages form a pergunnah; a certain number of pergunnahs, comprehending a tract of ground equal to a moderate-sized English county, is denominated a chuckla; of these a certain number and extent form a circar, and a few circars form a grand division, province, or soubah. This word occasionally means the government, and is also much used by Europeans to designate a Hindoo writer or accountant, in which case it is usually written *Sircar*. See also SOUBAH.

COILLERY *(properly kallen)*—Means a thief.

COIR—The fibres of the coco-nut husk.

COOLIES—Labourers, porters, slaves.

COMPOUND *(from campao, Portuguese)*—An enclosure round a house or bungalow.

COOND—A spring, well, or fountain.

CONKER *(kankar)*—A calcareous concretion. A hard white calcareous soil.

COPRA—The coco-nut kernel cut into slices and dried for exportation.

CORGE—A score.

COSS *(karoh or krosa)*—A corrupt term used by Europeans to denote a road measure, generally estimated at forty-two to the degree, but differing in almost every province. It may be computed as never under a mile, or more than two miles.

COWRY—A small shell that passes for money throughout India. From 2,500 to 5,000, according to circumstances, are equivalent to a rupee or two shillings.

COZAUKS—Properly robbers on horseback.

CRATTAN *(Malay)*—A citadel, fortress.

CRORE—Ten millions.

CURNUM—A village-accountant or register.

CUMERU—The southern hemisphere or pole. A fabulous region where Yama *(Pluto)* presides over the Asuras and Daityas.

CUSBA—The head village of a talook or pergunnah.

CUT *(or kut)*—*Terra Japonica*. The inspissated juice of the mimosa chadira.

CUTCHA—Unripe, incomplete, short measure. See PUCKA.

CUTCHERRY—A court of justice; also the public office where the rents are paid, and other business respecting the revenue transacted.

CUTTERAH—A citadel, fortified town.

CUTWAL—The chief police officer in a large town.

CUSA-GRASS—A sacred grass used by the Brahmins in their religious ceremonies. It is a species of the *poa cynosuroides*.

DACOITS—Gang robbers.

DAL—A species of vetch; the *cytisus cajan*, or pigeon-pea tree, usually split.

DAM, or DAUM—A copper coin, the twenty-fifth part of a pice, ac-

cording to some an ideal money, the fortieth part of a rupee.

DAMMER—A species of resin.

DALAWAI—In Mysore, a prime minister.

DAGOP—A Buddhist temple, or sepulchral edifice in Ceylon.

DAWK—In Bengal means the post.

DECCAN *(Dacshina)*—From a Sanscrit word signifying the south, but applied by the Mahomedan historians to the country between the Nerbudda and the Krishna rivers.

DERSANA *(Sanscrit)*—A school of philosophy.

DESA—A country, or division.

DESAM—In Malabar, a village.

DESHMOOK—A zemindar, or chief of a division.

DESHPANDE—A keeper of accounts in a small district.

DEVAS—Demigods, good spirits governed by Indra. The inhabitants of the north-pole, as contradistinguished from the Asuras.

DESANTARA—The distance of any two meridians on the surface of the earth, or what Europeans call longitude.

DEWAN—The head officer of finance and revenue, almost always a Hindoo.

DEWANNY—By this title the East-India Company are receivers-general in perpetuity of the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, under a grant obtained by Lord Clive, from the Emperor Shah Allum, in A.D. 1765; the Bengal year 1171.

DEWANNY ADAWLET—A court for trying revenue and other civil causes.

DESSYE—In the southern Maharatta countries is a rank equivalent to that of an independent poligar in the Carnatic.

DHAK—A bush with a large broad leaf like a peepul, and a beautiful pink flower.

DHARMASHASTRA *(Sanscrit)*—Writings on religion and justice.

DHANESA—The Indian buceros or horn-bill, which delights to feed on the fruit of the nux vomica.

DHERNA—Restraint to compel payment of arrears or to gain any object. It precludes locomotion and eating on both sides, until the affair in dispute is adjusted.

DHURRUMSALA—A place for the accommodation of travellers, similar to a choultry or serai.

DIGAMBER—A naked Jain image; Swetamber, a clothed one.

DOBASH—One who speaks two languages.

DOAB—Any tract of country included between two rivers.

DOON—A valley.

DOONGUR—The shepherd tribe.

DRAGOMAN—An interpreter, from Turjuma, a Persian word signifying translation.

DROOG *(durga)*—A fortified hill or rock. A hill fortress.

DRUVA—The pole of a great circle, more especially of the earth.

DURGA—The wife of Siva the destroyer. In astronomy a personification of the solar year.

DURBAR—A court or place in which a sovereign or viceroy gives audience.

DWIPA—An extensive region, continent, or island.

ENAUM.—Land abstracted from government, and exempted from assessment, as being devoted to charitable or religious purposes. A gift of land, &c. from a superior to an inferior.

EEDGAH.—An open Mahomedan chapel, where the sacrifice of Isaac and other public festivals of that religion are annually exhibited.

ERAS.—The era of Salivahanam began in ..... A.D. 78
Of Vicramaditya, ante-Christum 57
Of Parasurama ..... do. 1176
Of the Cali Yug, ... 3101 years had expired in the year of our Lord 1.
Add 1828

Expired of the Cali Yug, 4929 years

Let the proposed years be expressed according to the eras of the Cali Yug, Vicramaditya, and Salivahanam; the same may be reduced to Christian account by adding 3101 to the first, 57 to the second, and by subtracting 78 from the third.—

Epoch of the creation before the birth of Christ 4004 years. (*Kala Sankalita.*)

FAKEER.—A Mahomedan religious mendicant or devotee.

FIRMAUN.—A royal order or mandate.

FOO *(Chinese)*.—A city of the first rank.

FOUJDAR.—A military superintendent or commander.

FUSLY *(or Fuslee)*.—What relates to the harvest or seasons of the year. In Bengal an era, in which the fusly year 1230 corresponds with A.D. 1823.

FUTWEH *(Arabic)*.—A judicial decree, sentence, or judgment, more especially when delivered by a mufti or doctor of the Mahomedan law.

FUSLY KHEREEF.—The autumnal season, or harvest for rice, millet, &c.

FUSLY RUBBEE.—The spring season, or harvest for pease, wheat, &c.

GALLIVATS.—Large boats of about seventy tons, rowing forty or more oars.

GAMBIR.—A strong astringent substance extracted from the leaves of the *naucliea gambir*, and used in China for tanning.

GANJA.—An intoxicating drug procured from the hempseed and flower.

GEETA.—A song or poem.

GENTOO.—A name derived from the Portuguese word Gentio, which signifies gentile in the scriptural sense.

GHAUT.—A pass through a mountain, but generally applied to an extensive chain of hills.

GHEE.—Butter clarified by boiling.

GNAPEE.—See BALACHANG.

GOBERDHANA.—The place of cow-killing.

GODOWN.—A factory or warehouse, from the Malay word gadong.

GOLAH.—A warehouse.

GOMASTA.—Native assistant, agent.

GOOMTY.—Winding; the name of many rivers in Hindostan.

GOOROO.—Among the Hindoos a spiritual guide.

GOSAINS.—Hindoo devotees; they are also named Sanyassies.

GRAM.—In botany, a species of vetch, of which there are many varieties, such as the cow, horse, red, black, and green gram.

GRAM *(or gong)*.—A village or township; the termination of many names.

GRAM KHURCH.—Village expenses.

GRASSIA *(from gras)*.—A Sanscrit word signifying a mouthful, metaphorically applied to designate the small share of the produce which the Grassia plunderers claim.

GRABS.—Square-rigged vessels with long prows.

GRAHA.—In Hindoo astronomy, the planets.

GUICOWAR.—A cow-keeper or herd; the designation of a Maharatta chieftain.

GUDDEE *(properly gadi)*.—A throne.

GUNGE.—A granary or depôt. In gunges the chief commodities sold are grain and the necessaries of life, and generally by wholesale; they often include bazars and hauts, where these articles are sold by retail, and in great variety. It is a very common termination of names in Bengal, and some of the adjacent provinces, and generally applied to a place where there is water-carriage.

GUAVA.—In botany, the *psidium pomiferum*.

GUNNIES.—Bags made of a coarse cotton fabric; a species of sack-cloth.

GOONONG *(Malay)*.—A mountain.

GOONONG API *(Malay)*.—A volcano.

GUZ.—In botany, the Indian tamarisk.

GURRY.—A native fortification, consisting of a wall of mud or masonry flanked with towers; a village citadel.

GYLUMS.—Monks in Tibet and Bootan; pronounced also gelums and gylongs.

HAKIM.—A commander, governor,

ruler, master, the governing authority in a province.

HARAM.—A separate apartment for females.

HAUT.—A market which in Bengal is held on certain days only, and resorted to by petty venders and traders. They are established in open plains, where a flag is erected on the day and at the place of purchase and sale.

HEEN *(Chinese)*.—A city of the third rank.

HOOLY *(Huli)*.—The Hindoo festival of spring.

HOOLY-POWDER.—A fine starch prepared from the root of the zedoary.

HOM.—The worship of fire; a burnt-offering.

HOWDAH.—A seat fixed on an elephant.

HUST-O-BOOD *(is and was)*.—The neat rent.

HIJERA *(Arabic)*.—A term used in chronology, signifying the *epocha*, or account of time used by the Arabians, who begin from the day Mahomed was forced to escape from Mecca to Medina, *viz.* the 16th July A.D. 622. The years of the Hijera are lunar ones of 354 days; and therefore to reduce them to our calendar, we must multiply the year of the Hejira by 354, and divide the product by 365¼, adding 622, the result will be the Julian year.

INDRA.—In Hindoo mythology the god of thunder; a personification of the sky; the chief of the Devatas and Suras.

ISHA DEVATA.—The family or favourite god.

ISTIMRAR.—Rents paid in perpetuity.

IZARADARS.—In land revenue, middlemen.

JACK-FRUIT TREE.—In botany, the *autocarpus integrifolia*.

JAGGERY.—Sugar in its coarse state; imperfectly granulated sugar; also the inspissated juice of the palmyra-tree.

JAGHIRE.—An assignment of the government share of the produce of a portion of land to an individual, either personal or for the support of a public establishment, particularly of a military nature.

JAMBHU DWIPA.—One of the seven grand divisions of the earth.

JAMDANI.—A species of muslin flowered in the loom.

JATAMANSI.—The spikenard of the ancients.

JATTRA.—A kind of religious festival and fair.

JELMKAR.—In Malabar this term signifies a proprietor.

JEEL.—A shallow lake or morass.

JIN.—A demon.

JOGIES.—Hindoo devotees.

JOOMS.—Mugh villages or hamlets.

JOSS STICKS.—In China, small reeds, covered with the dust of odoriferous woods, and burned before idols.

JOWARY.—The *holcus sorghum*, a species of Indian millet.

JOWASSA.—Camel's thorn, a prickly bush on which camels browse.

JUDISHTER *(Yudhishthir)*.—One chronology places this sovereign 3,200 years before the birth of Christ. Dr. Francis Buchanan thinks he lived about the time of Alexander. In every part of Hindostan there remain traces of his family, or of the princes who were his contemporaries, and founders of many dynasties that have governed since his time. This prince, although usually called the son of Pandoo, is allowed to have been in fact the son of Dharma, the god of justice, by the wife of Pandoo, who seems to have been indebted to the assistance of the gods for all his five sons.

JUMMA.—The whole, total, &c. Land revenue generally, but frequently applied to the aggregate of all revenues.

JUMMA MUSJEED.—The chief mosque of a city; the Mahomedan cathedral.

JUNGLE.—Land covered with forest-trees, thick impenetrable brush-wood, creeping plants, and coarse, rank, reedy vegetation; wastes, forests, thickets.

JUNNUM PUTTER.—In astrology, the

aspect of the planets in the heavens at the moment of birth.

JURREE PUTKA.—The golden pennon or standard of the Maharattas.

JYOTISH.—Astronomy.

KALA, or CALA.—Time in its natural acceptation.

KALARIES.—Mounds of salt earth collected at salt-making places.

KAPAS.—Cotton; the *gossipium herbaceum.*

KATKAEE.—Indiscriminate pillage.

KEANG *(Chinese).*—A large river.

KESARI.—A species of vetch or pea; the *lathyrus sativaes.*

KETU.—The moon's descending node.

KHAILS.—Societies, clans in Afghanistan.

KHALSA.—Crown villages, government lands.

KHANA SUMARI.—An annual enumeration of the houses, with a specification of the caste and profession of each householder, for the purpose of adjusting the dues of government.

KHAO *(Siamese).*—A mountain.

KHARI NIMOK.—A species of impure glauber salts, or *sulphate of soda.*

KHAS.—Private, peculiar; revenue collected immediately by government without the agency of zemindars.

KHETRI *(Cshatriya).*—The second or military caste of the Hindoos.

KHELAUT.—A robe of honour with which the Mahomedan princes confer honour.

KHONG *(Siamese).*—A river.

KHOOTBA.—That part of the Mahomedan church service in which the king of a country is prayed for. Inserting a prince's name in the khootba, and stamping it on the current coin, in the East, are reckoned the most decided acknowledgments of sovereignty.

KHUS KHUS.—The name of a species of grass (the *andropogon muricatum*), which produces a sweet-smelling root.

KILLADAR.—Warder of a castle, commander of a fort.

KIST.—In finance, an instalment.

KOIT or KAIT (A provincial corruption of *kayast'ha*, hence *caste*).—A mixed tribe of Hindoos, whose profession is generally writing and accounts. Most of the Banyans and Sirkars of Calcutta are of this class.

KOMISDARS.—Managers or renters of provinces.

KOOAHS.—Wells without steps.

KOOL.—A tribe or caste.

KOOLKURNEE.—A village accountant, corresponding with the Tulatee of Gujerat.

KOONBIES.—Cultivators.

KOROK.—In Indian finance means a monopoly.

KUBEER PUNTS.—A particular sect of religious mendicants.

KULLAEE.—A species of kidney-bean, the *phaseolus max.*

KUR *(or cur).*—Signifies an inhabitant; as Nimbal kur, an inhabitant of Nimbak

KURWA MUTTEE.—A *carbonate of soda.*

KWALLA, or QUALLA.—A Malay word signifying a river.

KYOOKS *(Arracanese).*—Zemindars.

LACK.—One hundred thousand.

LAKHERAJ.—Rent free.

LAKSHMI.—The Hindoo goddess of wealth.

LAMBALLIES.—Itinerant merchants in the Deccan.

LASCAR.—Properly a camp follower, but by Europeans a term applied to a native sailor.

LAUT.—A Malay word signifying the sea.

LECHEE.—In botany, the *scytala lichti.*

LOOTY.—A plunderer, the same as Pindary.

LUBBIES.—Mahomedans, named Moplays on the Malabar coast, and Lubbies at Madras.

LANCA.—This is an imaginary place, supposed to lie under the equator, somewhere S.W. of the island of Ceylon. It is one of the four cities (Yavacoti, Lanca, Romaca, and Siddhapuri) supposed to lie under the equator at ninety degrees distance from each other. In Hindoo astronomy, Lanca has neither

latitude nor longitude. Its meridian in European maps is 75° 53′ 15″ E. of Greenwich.

MAASHA.—A maasha is a little more than the tenth part of a rupee in weight.

MADRISSA.—A college for instruction in the Mahomedan law.

MAHA.—Great.

MAHAL.—A small district or department; a territorial subdivision; a ward of a town.

MAHWA or MOHWA-TREE.—In botany, the *bassa latifolia*.

MAIZE.—In botany, *zea mays*.

MAWULS. — Among the Eastern Ghauts designates valleys between mountains.

MALGOOZARS. — Landholders, renters, &c. paying revenue to government.

MALIKANA.—A subsistence granted to zemindars when the government take charge of their lands.

MAMOOL. — In revenue matters means usage, custom, the unwritten law.

MANGO-TREE.—In botany, the *mangifera indica*.

MANDIRS.—Temples, spires.

MANTRAS. — Charms, incantations, prayers, invocations.

MASH KALAI.—In botany, the *phaseolus radiatus*.

MASHURI.—In botany, the *ervum lens*

MATAM.—A college.

MATH *(or muth)*. —A chapel or small temple, also a sect.

MANGROVE *(the Malay Islands)*.—In botany, the *rhizophora gymnorhiza*; it abounds chiefly where the fresh water of streams and rivers intermix with those of the ocean; one species extends along the sea-shore, with its roots growing entirely in salt water.

MERU. — This word seems to designate the terrestrial orb or yoke of the mundane egg.

MAUMLETDARS.—Persons who superintend the collection of the revenue, police, &c.

MAUND.—A measure of weight in India. At Madras it weighs twenty-five pounds, and a double or pucka maund eighty. In Bengal the common maund may be estimated at eighty pounds, but the opium maund at only seventy-five pounds.

MAUZA.—A village, estate, manor.

ME *(Siamese)*.—Signifies mother.

MEERASSY *(from the Arabic word miras)*.—This term, originally signifying *inheritance*, is in the south of India employed to designate a variety of rights, all more or less connected with proprietary possession, or usufruct of the soil, or of its produce.

MEERASSADARS.— Proprietors of a village.

MELAH.—A fair, or assembly of pilgrims, partly for religious and partly for commercial purposes.

MEW.—A Burmese affix, signifying a town, city, &c.

MILK-HEDGE.—In botany, the *euphorbia tiraculli*.

MIRCHEE.—Red pepper, the *capsicum amomum*.

MEWANG *(Siamese)*.—A town or place.

MIRZA *(from ameerzadeh, the son of an ameer)*.—A title which, when prefixed to a name, implies a secretary or civilian; but when it follows a name, designates a prince.

MISSOY-BARK.—An aromatic bark, resembling cinnamon in flavour, found in New Guinea and the Papuan Isles, the powder of which is much used by the Japanese.

MOCURERY.—As applied to land, means land let on a fixed lease; a fixed assessment; perpetual lease.

MOFUSSIL.—The subordinate divisions of a district, in contradistinction to sudder, which implies the seat of government; provincial, as distinguished from the capital or head-quarters.

MOLUNGHIES.—Salt-manufacturers.

MOCSHA.—In Hindoo theology, liberation, escape from the body.

MOODA.—A Malay word signifying young.

MOOLOOKGERY.—Tribute received to abstain from plundering.

MOONG.—In botany, the *phaseolus mungo*, a species of kidney-bean.

MOTAHDARRY.—The permanent settlement as introduced by the British into the South of India.

MUCTI.—In Hindoo theology, final absorption.

MUGGADOOTIES.—A sort of cloth manufactured from wild silk.

MULMUL.—A thin sort of muslin.

MUNZIL.—A day's journey.

MUNJEET.—A species of Indian madder.

MUNSIFF.—A native judge or justice, whose decisions are limited to suits for personal property not exceeding fifty rupees.

MUFTI.—The Mahomedan law officer who declares the sentence.

MUNDUL.—A circle or division of a country; also the head man of a village.

MUSNUD.—A throne, chair of state.

MAHABHARAT *(the great war)*.—A historical and mythological poem, which records the first eclipse mentioned in the Shastras.

NAAD—In Malabar a territorial subdivision.

NABOB *(pronounced Nawaub)*—A deputy or viceroy under the Mogul.

NAGUR, NAGORE, NUGGUR, and NAGARA—A town or city, the termination of many names.

NAM—A Siamese word signifying water, also a river.

NAMBURIES—Malabar Brahmins.

NACSHATRA—In Hindoo astronomy, a lunar mansion, which contains 13° 20′ of the circumference of the zodiac. A solar sign contains 2¼ nacshratra or mansions.

NAH—A Siamese word signifying a paddy field.

NANKAR—A grant to zemindars for their maintenance.

NASTIC—In Hindoo theology signifies heterodox, atheist, disowner of another world.

NAT—The spirits of the air.

NATCHENY—See Raggy.

NEEM TREE—In botany, the *melia azedirachta*.

NICH—Low in rank or religion.

NIRVANA *(Sanscrit)*—In metaphysics a profound calm, signifying also *extinct*. The notion attached to it by the Hindoos is that of perfect apathy, a condition of unmixed tranquil happiness or extacy. Other terms distinguish different gradations of pleasure, joy, and delight; but a state of imperturbable apathy is the ultimate bliss to which the followers of Brahma aspire. In this the Jain, the Buddhist, and orthodox Vedantin all concur; yet a perfect uninterrupted apathy can hardly be said to differ from an eternal sleep.

NISHADA *(Sanscrit)*—An outcast.

NIZAM—Order, arrangement, an arranger.

NIZAMUT ADAWLET—A court of criminal justice.

NUDDY—A river, the termination of many names.

NULLAH—A natural canal, or small branch of a river, also a streamlet, rivulet, or watercourse.

NUZZER or NUZZERANA—An offering or present made to a superior.

OM—A monosyllable of mystical import among the Lama Bhooteas and Tibetians.

OOREEO—A species of kidney bean, the *phaseolus max*.

OSWALS—A sect of Jain heretics, who eat at night contrary to the Jain usage.

ORANG OUTANG—Malay words, signifying a wild man, and applied to a large species of ape.

PADMA—The true lotus or sacred bean lily; in botany the *nelumbium speciosum*.

PADDY—A Malay word, signifying rice in the husk.

PAGODA—This is a name applied by Europeans to Hindoo temples and places of worship, but not by the Hindoos themselves, who have no such appellation. It is the name also of a gold coin, principally current in the south of India, called Varaha by the Hindoos, and Hoon by the Mahomedans.

PACSHA *(a side)*—In Hindoo astronomy half the lunar month. Sucla pacsha, the time from the new to the full moon; Krishna pacsha, that from the full to the new moon,

or the wane. Each pacsha contains fifteen tit'his or lunar days, each distinguished numerically.

PAK—A Siamese word signifying mouth, debouchure.

PAGAH—The household horse, or body guard; the *elite* of a native army.

PANGLIMA LAUT—In Malay, an admiral.

PANGLIMA PRANG—In Malay, a general.

PANGERAN—In Malay, a nobleman.

PANT'HA—In Hindoo theology a path, road.

PANSH GAUDA BRAHMINS—Brahmins of the north of India.

PANCHANGA—A calendar

PARADARS—In Arracanese, undertenants.

PARASURAMA *(era of)*—An account of time used on the Malabar coast from Mangalore to Cape Comorin. It derives its name from a monarch (one of the avataras or incarnations of Vishnu) who is supposed to have lived 1176 years before our Saviour. The 1,000th year of the third cycle of Parasurama ended on 14th September 1824; the following is the first day of the first year of the fourth cycle

PARAMHANGA—A gymnosophist or naked philosopher.

PARBUTTIES — Mountaineers, hill people.

PARUS PUTTAR — The philosopher's stone.

PARIAH—A term used in India by Europeans to designate the outcasts of the Hindoo tribes, and also any thing vile.

PATAN—A term generally applied in Hindostan to the Afghan tribes, but the derivation of which has never been satisfactorily ascertained.

PATEL—See Potail.

PATTEMARS—Malabar trading boats carrying about 500 Bengal maunds of rice.

PATRA—A calendar.

PATNAS—In Orissa, small villages are thus designated.

PAUN *(or betel-leaf plant)*—In botany the betel piper.

PEER—A Mahomedan saint.

PEON—A footman or foot soldier, generally employed in the revenue or police.

PERGUNNAH—See Circar.

PESHWA—A leader, the title of the late sovereign of the Poona Maharattas.

PETTAH—A town or suburb adjoining a fort. An extra-mural suburb.

PENANG *(Malay)*—Betel-nut

PERSAUD *(or Prasad)*—Food from the altar of a deity.

PESHCUSH—A Persian compound, signifying "first fruits," or rather that which is first extracted. It is the usual phrase for tribute.

PEEPUL TREE—In botany the *ficus religiosa*.

PERWANA—A license, order, &c.

PHOKE—A wild plant peculiar to the Bicanere district and its neighbourhood.

PICE—Small copper coins.

PINE-APPLE PLANT—In botany, the *bromelia ananas*.

PIASATH—The Burmese name for the spire of a pagoda or palace.

PITRI—Certain genii or spirits; also the spirits of deceased ancestors.

PLANTAIN—In botany the *musa paradisiaca*.

PINDA—A cake of rice and sweetmeats offered to expiate the sins of ancestors.

POLLAMS — Zemindaries, fiefs, districts held by poligars, also vallies between the ghauts.

POLIGARS — Small tributary landholders in the south of India, who were never thoroughly subdued by the Mahomedans.

POON—A Malay word signifying wood in general.

POOR *(Pura)*—A town, place, or residence, the termination of many names in Bengal and the upper provinces.*

POTAILS *(or Patels)*—The head man of a village, who collects the rents, and has a general superintendence.

* In no East-Indian language whatever, has this syllable the sound of the English word *pore*.

PRITEE NEEDHEE—A Maharatta title, signifying the likeness or representative of the sovereign himself.

PRAYAGA — Holy junctions of two or more rivers, pronounced Prag.

PRAW, or PHRA-CHAI-DI — In Ava and Pegu means a temple, pyramid, &c.

PRANG—In Malay signifies a battle.

PRALAYA—An universal deluge.

PUMPLENOSE *(or Shaddock)* — In botany, the *citrus decumanus*.

PUNCHAITS *(or Punchayet)*—A jury of arbitration usually consisting of five persons, from whose decision there is an appeal to the regularly constituted tribunals or courts of justice.

PUNDIT—A learned Brahmin.

PUCKA—Ripe, complete, full or large measure—See CUTCHA.

PUROHIT—An officiating priest.

PUNJUM CLOTH—Consists of a certain number of threads that run lengthways through a piece of cloth.

PUNJAH—Dry grain land.

PUTWARY—A register.

PURANAS—Certain Hindoo mythological poems.

PUGGIES—A village tribe, whose business it is to trace thieves by their footsteps.

PYKES—Foot messengers and watchmen; also the ancient militia under the zemindars.

QUALLA *(or Kwala)*—A Malay word, signifying the mouth of a river.

RAHDARY—Duty collected on cattle, &c.

RAHU—In Hindoo astronomy, the moon's ascending node.

RAJA—King, prince, chieftain, nobleman, a title in ancient times given only to the military caste.

RAJA MOODA *(or young Raja)* — Among the Malays is equivalent to heir-apparent.

RAJBANGSI—A phrase which, literally translated, means descendants of princes, but all over India it is a term used for a person of low birth.

RAJPOOTS *(from Raja putra, the offspring of a king)*—A name which, strictly speaking, ought to be limited to the higher classes of the military tribe, but which is now assumed on very slender pretences.

RAMA—An avatara of Vishnu. Sir Wm. Jones places it 1810 years ante-Christum.

RANGRI—A mixed dialect of Hindi in central India.

RANNY *(a corruption of rajni)* — A queen, princess, the wife of a raja.

RAGGY—In botany, the *cynosurus corocanus*.

RATTAN—In botany, the *calamus rotang*.

RAVI—A name of the sun.

RAWAT—In Orissa, a leader.

RAZINAMA—A deed of consent or acquiescence.

RICE—In botany, *oryza*; common rice, *oryza sativa*.

RISHI—A Hindoo saint or holy man.

ROOEE—A fish of Bengal, the *rohit cyprinus*.

ROWANAH—A permit or passport.

ROWS — Titled Maharatta chiefs created by Sevajee.

RUBBEE—A dry crop.

RUPEE—The name of a silver coin of comparatively modern currency; for it is remarkable that there do not exist any specimens in that metal anterior to the establishment of the Mahomedan power in India, while a great many in gold have been preserved of far higher antiquity. In calculating the value of a sicca rupee in English money sixteen per cent. must be added to the sum, which converts it into current rupees (an imaginary coin valued at 2*s*.), ten of which go to the pound sterling. The East-India Company's accounts are kept at the following fixed rates of exchange, *viz*. 2*s*. the current rupee, 2*s*. 3*d*. the Bombay rupee, 5*s*. the Spanish dollar, 6*s*. 8*d*. the Chinese tael, and 8*s*. the pagoda.

RUSSUD—A progressively increasing land-tax or jumma.

RUTH—A carriage on two low wheels drawn by bullocks.

RYOT—Peasant, cultivator, subject.

RYOTWAR—A money settlement with ryots of a village individually.

SABLE-FISH *(from sable, French)*—In ichthyology, a species of *clupea*; by the natives it is called the hilsa.

SACTI—A female energy, power, spirit, or demon. Worshippers of female deities or spirits, according to the Tantras, are Sactis.

SAHARA *(or zahara)*—An absolute and extensive desert.

SAGO-TREE *(sagu, Malay)*—In botany, the *palma farinifera.*

SANYOGI—A religious person who indulges openly in the pleasures of the world.

SANYASSIES—Hindoo devotees and mendicants.

SANSCRIT—The literal meaning of this word is *adorned*, and when applied to a language signifies *polished.*

SAPAN-WOOD—A wood employed for dyeing a fine red, or deep orange. In botany, the *cæsalpinia sappan.*

SARCARA—The Sanscrit name for manufactured sugar.

SAURUS—A very tall bird, the largest of the crane kind.

SAUL-TREE—In botany, the *shorea robusta.*

SALIVAHANA—The name of a prince said to have been born seventy-eight years after the beginning of the Christian era, and a descendant of Vicramaditya.

SAKA *(or Saca)*—The solar years expressed from the birth of Salivahana are called saka. The year saka, which expires in April 1828, is the 1750th; and the year that begins then is the 1751st.

SANCRANTI—In Hindoo astronomy, the day in which the sun enters a new sign.

SEPOY *(sipahi, Persian and Turkish)*—A name given in Hindostan to the native *infantry* soldiers in the British service. The spahies of the Turks are cavalry.

SAYER—Variable imposts, such as customs, duties, tolls, &c.

SEBUNDY—An irregular native soldier, or local militia-man, generally employed in the service of the revenue and police.

SEER—A weight which varies all over India; in Bengal there are forty to a maund.

SERAI—A place of accommodation for travellers, thus named by the Mahomedans; the Hindoos call it *choultry* and *dhurrumsala.*

SEIDS—Descendants of Mahomed, through his nephew Ali and his daughter Fatima.

SERINJAMMY—A yearly allowance made to the collector of a district for incidental charges.

SEVEN RISHIS—In Hindoo astronomy, the constellation named the great bear.

SEACUNIES *(soukhanies, from soukhan, a helm)*—Helmsmen, steerers.

SEYURGHAL—A jaghire assignment, usually for life, on certain lands for the whole or part of the assessed revenue.

SHASTRAS *(or Sastras)*—An inspired or revealed book; also any book of instruction, particularly such as contain revealed ordinances.

SHROFF—A banker or money-changer.

SHIAS—In Mahomedan theology, adherents to the sect of Ali.

SHEREEFS—Descendants of Mahomed. See SEIDS.

SHAHBUNDER—A master attendant, or harbour-master, and generally the king's agent and merchant.

SHAMBOGUES—In Canara, village accountants.

SHINBIN—A teak plank or beam three or four inches thick.

SHEIKH—A Mahomedan title indicating a derivation from Arabia.

SIDDHANTA—A Sanscrit word which means 'settled.'

SIRKAR—See CIRCAR.

SISSOO-TREE—In Botany, the *dalbergia sissoo.*

SIRDAR—A chief, captain, leader.

SINGH—A lion, a distinctive appellation of the khetries or military caste, now assumed by many barbarous tribes converted by the Brahmins.

SIVA *(or Mahadeva)*—The third person of the Hindoo triad, in

the character of destroyer; he is a personification of time.

Sivottar — Land granted for the sake of Siva.

Soondry-tree—In botany, the *heritiera robusta*.

Soonies — The designation of that sect of Mahomedans who revere equally the four successors of Mahomed, while the Shias reject the three first as usurpers.

Soojee Mati—A substance resembling natron. A species of earth impregnated with alkali; a native carbonate of soda or mineral alkali.

Soubah—According to the institutes of Acber, a soubah should consist of twenty-two circars, a circar of twenty-two pergunnahs, a pergunnah of twenty-two tuppahs, and a tuppah of twenty-two villages; but probably this strictness of division never was carried into effect. See also Circar.

Soubahdar—A viceroy or governor of a large province; also the title of a native sepoy officer, below an ensign, yet it is the highest rank he can attain.

Sraddha—A Hindoo rite in commemoration of ancestors.

Srawuks *(Charvacas)*—The laity of the Jain sect.

Sucla Pascha—In Hindoo astronomy, the first or enlightened half of the lunar month, the time from new moon to full moon.

Sudder—The chief seat or headquarters of government, as distinguished from the mofussil, or interior of the country.

Sudra—The fourth caste among the Hindoos, comprehending mechanics and labourers. The subdivisions of this caste are innumerable.

Sunn—The Bengal hemp plant. In botany, the *crotolaria juncea*.

Sungei—A Malay word signifying a river.

Sungum—In the Deccan and South of India means a conflux of two or more rivers, the same as Prayaga in Northern Hindostan.

Sumbut *(or Sumvat)*—A common year in the Hindoo calendar.

Sunnud—A patent, charter, or written authority.

Sumeru — The northern hemispere; also a fabulous region above the north pole, where Indra presides over the Suras and Devatas.

Suras — Benign spirits harbouring about the north pole, and governed by Indra.

Sutties—Self-burning of widows.

Sutras—Aphorisms.

Swetamber—A clothed Jain image, in contradistinction to Digamber, a naked one.

Tael—A Chinese measure of value, which in the East-India Company's accounts is valued at 6*s*. 8*d*.

Talookdars—Petty zemindars, some of whom pay their rent through a superior zemindar, while others pay it directly to government.

Tanna—A police station; also a military post.

Tannadar—The keeper or commandant of a tanna.

Tajik—In Afghanistan, a term applied to all people whose vernacular language is the Persian.

Tanjibs—Plain white muslins, forty cubits by two.

Tanjong *(or Ujong)*—A Malay word, signifying a point, cape, or head of land.

Tari *(or toddy)*—The fermented juice of the *borassus flabelliformis*, palmira tree.

Tanna—A Malay word signifying land, as Tanna Papua, Papua Land, or New Guinea.

Tee—An umbrella in general; also an umbrella of open iron work, covering the Buddhist pagodas of Ava and Pegu, from which a number of small bells are suspended.

Tezpaut—In Bengal cookery, the leaf of a species of native cinnamon.

Tehsildar—A native collector of a division, subordinate to the chief collector.

Thugs—A notorious class of public robbers in the upper provinces of Hindostan.

Thull—A sand-hill, desert.

Thakoorbarries—Little chapels dedicated to Hindoo deities.

THAKOOR—A lord, chief, or baron.

TILL *(or Teel)*—In botany, the *sesamum orientale.*

TIT'HI—In Hindoo astronomy, the one-thirtieth part of the time which the moon takes to move through a synodical revolution, whatever be its duration. It is considered as the time during which the moon's motion to or from the sun amounts to twelve degrees. The thirty tit'his of the month are divided into two parts, called pacshas, of fifteen tit'his each. The term is also applied to the anniversary day of the death of parents.

TIRTHANKAR—Among the Jains a saint or lawgiver.

TICA—A mark of royal approbation which consists in having the forehead anointed with a preparation of bruized sandal-wood; also the streaks that particular classes draw on their brow over and on the nose.

TOO-SZE *(Chinese)*—A frontier station.

TOPASSES—Foot-soldiers, originally raised among the native Portuguese and other native Christians.

TODDY—See TARI.

TOOUR—In botany, the *cytis cajan* or pigeon-pea tree.

TOOMAN—A small district; also a horde.

TOOLSEE *(or tulasi)*—In botany, the *ocymum sanctum.*

TOON-TREE—In botany, the *cedrila toona.*

TRIPANG—A black species of *holothuria.*

TRAGA *(or Tragala)*—Suicide; also an act of violence committed by the Bhauts and Bharots of Gujerat, sometimes on their own persons; at others, by putting some relative to death.

TUAN *(Malay)*—Sir, or gentleman.

TUCCAVY—Advances made to the cultivators, &c.

TULATEE—In Gujerat, the village accountant.

TUSSER—Silk procured in the forests from the wild silk-worm.

TURUFS—Divisions, districts.

UJONG *(Malay)*—See Tanjong.

UPADES—Religious initiatory instruction; also a sacred form of invoking God.

UYA—A species of grain found among the Himalaya, supposed to be either rye or a species of hill-rice.

VAISYA *(pronounced Byce)*—The third caste among the Hindoos, comprehending merchants, traders, and cultivators.

VAKEEL—Ambassador, agent, or attorney.

VAKEEL UL MOOTULLUK—Viceregent, an officer who exercised almost independent power under the emperors of Delhi.

VEDAS—Science, knowledge; the sacred books of the Brahminical Hindoos, four in number, Rig, Sama, Yajur, and Atharvan.

VEDANTA—Divinity.

VERMA—An adjunct expressing a khetri or military descent.

VERANDA—The covering of a house extended beyond the main pile of building, and supported by pillars, forming an external passage or open terrace.

VIHAR—A Buddhist convent.

VIRA—Certain ghosts worshipped by the Hindoos.

VICRAMADITYA—An Indian prince, who is supposed to have ascended the throne fifty-seven years before our Saviour's birth. In the northern parts of India the natives count from the accession of Vicramaditya, but the era is little used in the peninsula.

VISHNU PRITI—Land granted for the sake of Vishnu.

VYASA *(pronounced Byas)*—The author or compiler of the Vedas, and lawgiver to the present race of Brahminical Hindoos. One chronology places this great personage 3,200 years ante-Christum, but his votaries assert he is still alive at Badrycazrama, near the inaccessible source of the Ganges.

VYAKURN—In Sanscrit, grammar.

YATIS *(or Jatis)*—Officiating Jain priests.

YAMS—In botany, the *dioscorea sativa.*

YAK—The choury or bushy-tailed bull, the *bos grunniens* of Linnæus.

YUG—Properly this word denotes the conjunction and sometimes the opposition of the planets, but more generally it signifies a long period of years, at the expiration of which certain phenomena or circumstances recur.

ZEMINDAR—A landholder, a landkeeper.

ZEMINDARY—An estate belonging to or under the jurisdiction of a zemindar.

ZENDAVESTA—The sacred book of the Parsees.

ZILLAH—A local division of a country, a shire or county.

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The Calcutta Monthly Journal.

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Major-General Dirom—*Narrative of Campaigns in Mysore.*

Major Dow, of the Madras Military Establishment — *Appendix to the 5th Report.*

Captain Dangerfield, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *Manuscript and Printed Documents communicated by Sir John Malcolm, —Bombay Researches.*

Jonathan Duncan, Esq., Governor of Bombay—*Asiatic Researches.*

J. A. Dunlop, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Thomas Dickenson, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Ditto.*

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John Davy, Esq., of the Ceylon Medical Establishment — *Travels in Ceylon—Printed Documents.*

Alexander Dalrymple, Esq., Hydrographer to the East-India Company —*The Oriental Repository.*

The Abbé Dubois—*Description of the Manners and Customs of India.*

Lieutenant Hastings Dare—*Marsden's Sumatra.*

The Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone, Governor of Bombay—*Embassy to Cabul — MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Edward Hyde East—*Asiatic Researches.*

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vil Service — *Asiatic Researches— MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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Evidence before Parliament, 1813.

Captain H. M. Elmore — *Navigation of the Indian Seas.*

John Fullarton, Esq., of Great Stanhope Street, Hyde Park—*Manuscript Notes extracted from the Journal of his Travels through Hindostan, during the years* 1817, 1818, 1819, *and* 1820.

Ferishta's History of Hindostan and the Deccan.

J. Fortescue, Esq. of the Civil Service — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Wm. Fraser, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. French, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Forster's Journey Overland from Bengal to England.

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Colonel Franklin, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *History of Shah Allum—Asiatic Researches— Tracts on the Rajpoot States, &c.*

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Captain Flander's Voyage.

George Finlayson, Esq., Surgeon and Naturalist to the Mission to Siam and Cochin China.

Colonel Wm. Fullarton—*Campaigns in India.*

Colonel Fitzclarence—*Route through India and Egypt to England.*

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Charles Grant, Esq., a Director of the East-India Company—*Observations on the State of Society among the Asiatic Subjects of Great Britain, &c.*

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J. G. Gerard, Esq. — *Asiatic Researches.*

Robert Grant, Esq. M.P. — *The Expediency maintained of continuing the Restrictions on the Trade to India.*

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The Marquis of Hastings, Governor-General, &c. — *Manuscript and Printed Documents at the India Board.*

John Herbert Harington, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Asiatic Researches—Analysis of the Bengal Regulations—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Hayes, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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General T. Hardwicke, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *Asiatic Researches.*

Major William Hamilton, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

The Right Rev. Reginald Heber, D.D., Bishop of Calcutta—*Journey through the Upper Provinces of India from Calcutta to Bombay, in* 1824-5, *with Notes on Ceylon, &c.*

Colonel Hodgson, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Herbert, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain William Henley, Resident at Bopaul—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

William Hunter, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment — *Asiatic Researches.*

Hodges' Travels in India.

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James Hepburn, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

A. H. Hamilton, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Hanbury, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Thomas Hislop, Commander-in-Chief at Madras — *Printed Despatches.*

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James Hallet, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Hawkins, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Mr. Hunt's Account of the Sooloo Isles—*Malay Miscellanies.*

Gavin Hamilton, Esq.—*Account of the Nicobars—Asiatic Researches.*

Captain John Hunter—*Voyage to Botany Bay.*

Colonel Ironside, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Annual Register.*

Captain F. Irvine, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Edward Ironside, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Ives' Journal of a Voyage to India.

R. J. Ibetson, Esq., of the Civil Service, at Prince of Wales' Island—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Lieutenant N. Jones, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents.*

Major Johnstone, of his Majesty's Service—*Narrative of a Campaign in Ceylon.*

Johnston's Oriental Voyager.

Major Jackson—*Asiatic Researches.*

Robert Ker, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*

General Kirkpatrick—*Embassy to Nepaul.*

General A. Kyd, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Evidence before Parliament—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Knox, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Kishen Kant Bose—*MS. Account of Bootan at the India Board.*

Colonel Macdonald Kinneir, of the Madras Military Establishment, and Envoy at Teheraun—*Survey of Persia.*

Robert Kyd, Esq., of Calcutta—*MS. Report to Government on the Timber of Goalpara.*

Captain Achilles Kirkpatrick, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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Captain King—*Cooke's last Voyage.*

Krusenstern's Voyage to Japan.

M. Klaproth—*Magazin Asiatique, &c.*

Charles Lloyd, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

William Loeke, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Lowther, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. P. Larkins, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Leckie, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Journal of a Route to Nagpoor.*

Antony Lambert, Esq.—*Asiatic Annual Register.*

Lord Lake, Commander-in-Chief in India—*Printed Papers relative to the Maharatta War.*

Captain Barre Latter, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

John Leyden, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

S. R. Lushington, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel William Lambton, of His Majesty's 33d Regiment—*Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents.*

M. Langlès—*Monumens Ancien, et Modern de Hindoustan.*

Captain Francis Light, the first Governor of Prince of Wales' Island—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Mr. Leal, Interpreter to the Detachment with the Burmese Prisoners—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Lieutenant Low, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Labillardière's Voyage in Search of La Peyrouse.

Sir George Leith's Account of Prince of Wales' Island.

Sir John Malcolm, Governor of Bombay—*Political History of India, History of Persia, Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents.*

The Earl of Minto, Governor-General—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Norman Macleod, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

W. W. Massie, of the Bengal Civil Service—*Printed and Manuscript Documents at the India Board.*

John Melville, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Printed and Ma-*

nuscript Documents at the India Board.

William Moorcroft, Esq.—*Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Macrae, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment — *Asiatic Researches.*

Gilbert Macleod, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment — *Manuscripts.*

Robert May, of Chinsura, Missionary —*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

General Dyson Marshal, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

General G. Martindale, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

General Claude Martine, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Col. Thomas Morgan, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Doments at the India Board.*

Lieutenant Macartney, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Embassy to Cabul.*

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Sir Thomas Munro, Governor of Madras—*Appendix to 5th Report —MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Mackenzie, of the Madras Engineers—*Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel John Munro, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Thomas Mariott, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Charles Ware Malet, of the Bombay Civil Service—*Asiatic Researches—Evidence before Parliament—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Morrison, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain James Macmurdo, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Bombay Researches—Unpublished MS. Journal—MS. Reports to Government.*

Captain William Miles, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Bombay Transactions—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Thomas Marshall, Esq., Statistical Reporter to the Bombay Government—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Major Moor, of the Bombay Military Establishment —*Narrative of a Campaign with Captain Little's Detachment—Hindoo Pantheon, &c.*

Captain H. A. Montgomerie, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain W. Maxfield, of the Bombay Marine—*MS. Journal communicated by Sir John Malcolm.*

J. Mill, Esq.—*History of British India.*

William Milburne, Esq. —*Oriental Commerce.*

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The Travels of Marco Polo, translated by William Marsden, Esq.

Malay Miscellanies.

Medical Transactions.

— Maingy, Esq., Commissioner in the Conquered Provinces south of Rangoon—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

William Marsden, Esq.—*Account of Sumatra—Malay Dictionary and Grammar.*

Captain Mears—*Voyage to Nootka Sound.*

Thomas Newnham, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Charles Norris, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

General Sir David Ochterlony, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Orme's History of the Military Transactions in Hindostan.

George Oswald, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. C. Oakley, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*

— Oakes, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Oriental Herald, edited by J. S. Buckingham, Esq.

J. D. Paterson, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Asiatic Researches—MS. and Printed Documents.*

Henry T. Prinsep, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Narrative of the late Political and Military Events under the Administration of the Marquis of Hastings.*

Public Manuscript Despatches and Reports from the three Presidencies, deposited at the India Board.

P. W. Pechell, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

F. Pierard, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

W. Parker, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Police Reports, MS. and Printed.

Captain C. Patton, Commissioner in Arracan—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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H. S. Pearson, of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Henry Pottinger, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board —Narrative of a Journey through Baloochistan.*

Captain Pope, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Printed Documents.*

W. E. Philips, Esq., Governor of Prince of Wales' Island — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Percival's Account of Ceylon.

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J. Richardson, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Richard Rocke, of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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— Routledge, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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Captain H. D. Robertson, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Thomas Raffles—*History of Java, &c.*

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W. Roxburgh, Esq. of the Bengal Medical Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Sir Henry Strachey, Bart., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Appendix to the 5th Report, and MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Archibald Seton, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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Col. Michael Symes, of his Majesty's 76th Regiment—*Embassy to Ava.*

J. Scott, Esq.—*Translation of Ferishta's History of the Deccan: of the Memoirs of Eradut Khan, with notes.*

Major Charles Stewart, of the East-India College at Haileybury—*History of Bengal.*

Capt. Shaw, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Capt. Sutherland, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents communicated by Sir J. Malcolm.*

Major Snodgrass, of his Majesty's Service—*Narrative of the Burmese War.*

Capt. Sykes, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Bombay Transactions.*

Seid Gholaum Hossein—*The Seir ul Mutakherein.*

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Sidi Ali Ben Hossein, a Mahomedan Traveller in A.D. 1554—*Bombay Transactions.*

H. Salt, Esq.—*Lord Valentia's Travels.*

Capt. A. Stoneham, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Capt. Thomas Sydenham, of the Madras Military Establishment—*Evidence before Parliament*—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Capt. Seton, of Bombay—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Seid Mustapha, Envoy from Tippoo to Zemaun Shah—*MS. Narrative of a Journey to Candahar and Cabul in 1798, communicated by Sir John Malcolm.*

Sunderjee Sewjee, Government Agent from Bombay in the Gujerat Peninsula—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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Lieut. Spiers, Capt. of a Country Ship—*MS. Narrative at the India Board.*

Sir George Staunton, Bart.—*Embassy to Pekin with Lord Macartney.*

Stavorinus' Voyages, *with notes by the Translator, Mr. Wilcocke.*

Lord Teignmouth, Governor-Gen.—*Appendix to the 5th Report.*

Henry St. George Tucker, Esq., a Director of the East-India Company—*Printed Document.*

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Col. Towers, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Col. James Tod, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Transactions of the R. Asiatic Society—MS. Documents.*

Major Thorn, of his Majesty's Service—*Description of Java, &c.*

Lieut. Trant, of his Majesty's Service—*Two Years in Ava.*

Capt. Tickell, of the Bengal Engineers—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Capt. Turner, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Embassy to Tibet.*

The Rev. W. Tennant—*Indian Recreations.*

George Thomas, history of, by Col. Franklin.

William Thackeray, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*Appendix to the 5th Report—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

G. F. Travers, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. O. Tod, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Tone's Account of the Maharattas.

G. F. Tomb—*Observations in Java, edited by Sonini.*

Turpin's Histoire du Royaume de Siam.

Colonel Upton, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Lord Valentia's Travels.

Henry Verelst, Esq., Governor General—*Review of the Government of Bengal.*

H. W. Voysey, Esq., Physician to Colonel Lambton's Survey—*Printed and MS. Documents.*

The Marquis of Wellesley, Governor General—*Printed and MS. Documents at the India Board.*

The Duke of Wellington—*Printed and MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Henry Wellesley (Lord Cowley)—*Printed and MS. Documents at the India Board.*

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Horace Hayman Wilson, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

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J. Wauchope, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

A. Welland, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Major Wilford, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Captain W. S. Webb, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *Asiatic Researches—Printed Documents.*

Captain Thomas Williamson, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*The East-India Vade Mecum.*

Lieutenant R. S. White, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Wade, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment — *Asiatic Annual Registers.*

C. N. White, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*Appendix to the 5th Report.*

C. Woodcock, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Wallace, of his Majesty's Service—*Printed Reports on the Maharatta War.*

Colonel Mark Wilks, of the Madras Military Establishment — *History of the South of India.*

Captain J. S. Lloyd Williams, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel John Warren, of his Majesty's Service — *The Kala Sankalita—Asiatic Researches.*

Francis Warden, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Alexander Walker, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Lieutenant White, of the American Navy—*A Voyage to Cochin Chinn.*

The Reverend W. Ward—*Account of the Religion and Manners, &c. of the Hindoos.*

Zuniga's History of the Philippines, translated by W. Mavor, Esq.

Succession of Presidents in Bengal and Governors-General, from A.D. 1748.

Names.	Time of Appointment or Succession.	Assumption of the Government.	Time of quitting the Government.	
Alexander Dawson	Appointed by the Court the 27th January, 1748	18 July, 1749	5 July, 1752	Dismissed by the Court.
Wm. Fytche	Ditto 8th January, 1752	6 July, 1752	8 Aug. 1752	Died 8th August, 1752.
Roger Drake	Succeeded on the death of Mr. Fytche	10 Aug. 1752	21 June, 1758	Resigned.
Messrs. Watts, Manningham, Becher, and Holwell	Appointed by the Court to succeed Mr. Drake, and to govern alternately four months	28 June, 1758	27 June, 1758	Agreed to call Colonel Clive to the Government.
Colonel Robert Clive	Called to the government by Messrs. Watts, &c. and afterwards appointed by the Court	27 June, 1758	24 Jan. 1760	Resigned.
J. Z. Holwell,	Succeeded on the resignation of Colonel Clive	28 Jan. 1760	27 July, 1760	Resigned on the arrival of Mr. Vansittart.
Henry Vansittart	Appointed by the Court	27 July, 1760	26 Nov. 1764	Resigned.
John Spencer	Succeeded on the resignation of Mr. Vansittart	3 Dec. 1764	3 May, 1765	Resigned on Lord Clive's arrival.
Lord Clive	Appointed by the Court	3 May, 1765	20 Jan. 1767	Resigned.
Harry Verelst	Succeeded on the resignation of Lord Clive	29 Jan. 1767	16 Dec. 1769	Resigned.
John Cartier	Succeeded on the resignation of Mr. Verelst	20 Dec. 1769	13 Apr. 1772	Ordered to quit the Government in the last ship of the season, after Mr. Hastings' arrival.
Warren Hastings	Appointed by the Court the 25th April, 1771	13 Apr. 1772	1 Feb. 1785	Resigned and returned to Europe.
Sir John Macpherson	Succeeded Mr. Hastings	1 Feb. 1785	12 Sept. 1786	Resigned to Lord Cornwallis.
The Marquis Cornwallis	Took charge of the Government	12 Sept. 1786	10 Oct. 1793	Resigned to Sir John Shore, and embarked from Madras.
Sir John Shore	Ditto	28 Oct. 1793	12 Mar. 1798	Resigned to Sir Alured Clarke.
Sir Alured Clarke	Ditto	6 Apr. 1798	17 May, 1798	Resigned to Lord Wellesley.
The Marquis Wellesley	Ditto	17 May, 1798	30 July, 1805	Resigned to Marquis Cornwallis, and sailed for Europe on 26th Aug. 1805.
The Marquis Cornwallis	Ditto	30 July, 1805	5 Oct. 1805	Died on his way to the Upper Provinces.
Sir George Hilaro Barlow	Ditto	10 Oct. 1805	31 July, 1807	Succeeded by Lord Minto.
The Earl of Minto	Ditto	31 July, 1807	4 Oct. 1813	Resigned on the arrival of the Marquis of Hastings.
The Marquis of Hastings	Ditto	4 Oct. 1813	9 Jan. 1823	Resigned to Mr. Adam.
John Adam, Esq.	Ditto	9 Jan. 1823	1 Aug. 1823	Died at sea.
Lord Amherst	Ditto	1 Aug. 1823	—— 1828	
Lord Bentinck	Ditto	.....	.....	Sailed from England Feb. 9, 1828.

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P. signifies province; D. district; T. town; R. river; I. Isle.

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